

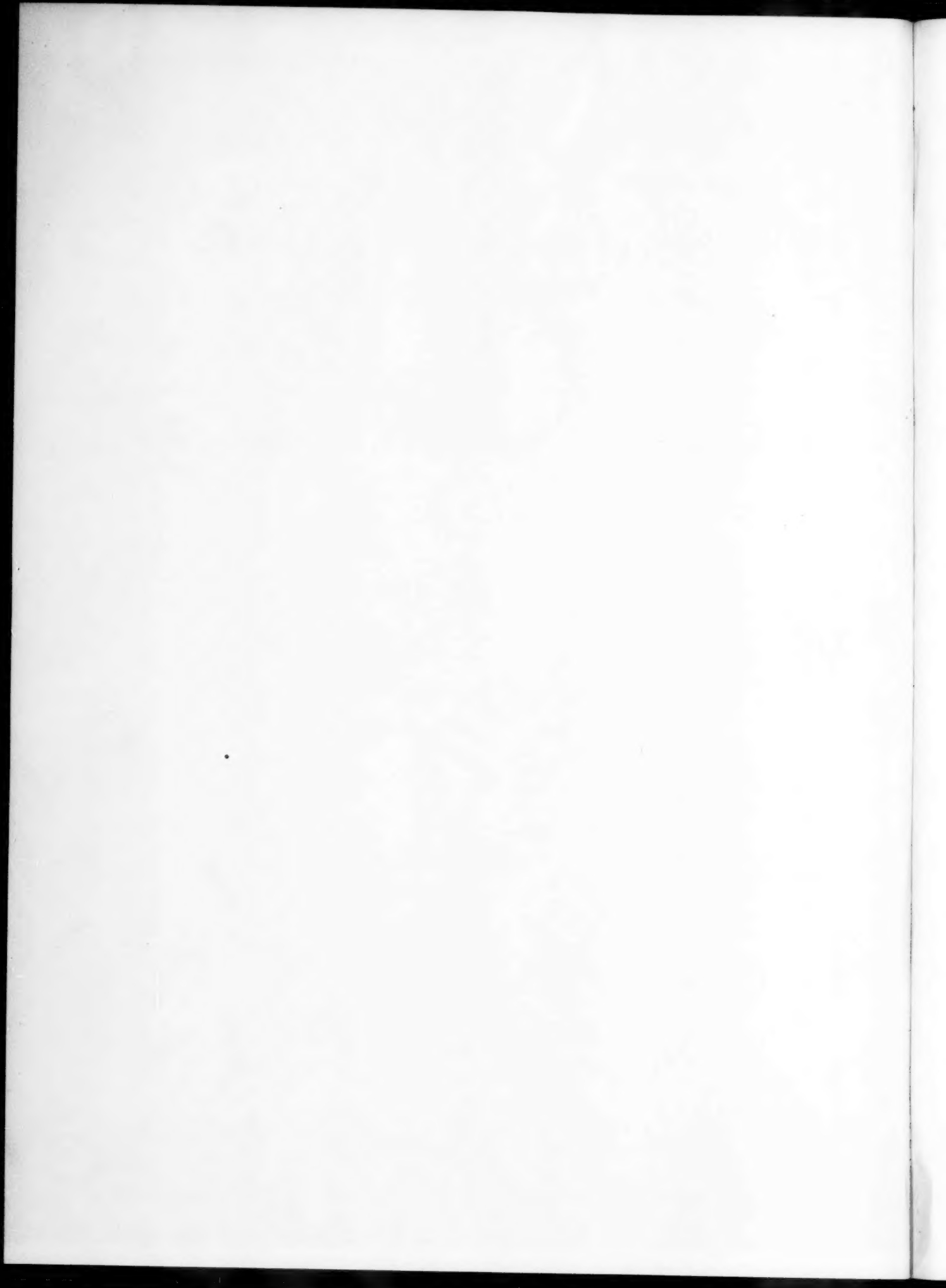
The Historical Outlook

Continuing

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The Historical Outlook

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Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
The League of Nations at Work, by E. McK. Eriksson	5
Chinese History as a Field of Research, by Prof. K. S. Latourette	13
College Course in United States History from Another Viewpoint, by Prof. M. L. Bonham, Jr.	14
Class-Room Helps	17-27
The Use of Maps in History Teaching, by Elma G. Martin, 17; A Written Test for a Civics Problem, by R. H. Mowbray, 19; Reference Studies in Oriental and Early European History to 1700 (to be con- tinued in next issue), by Wm. R. Lingo, 20.	

Communication upon Standard Tests, 12; A New Teachers' Manual, 27; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. J. M. Gambrill, 28; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 29; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 30.

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"The League of Nations at Work"

ERIK McKINLEY ERIKSSON, M. A., FELLOW IN HISTORY, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

Almost two years have now passed since the League of Nations came into official existence through the ratification of the Treaty of Versailles. This event took place at Paris on January 10, 1920, having been postponed from the preceding November 11th, in the hope that the United States would give the document its approval. The four remaining great powers, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan and nine lesser of the allied and associated powers on that date ratified the treaty including the Covenant of the League of Nations, which became immediately binding.¹

While two years is hardly a sufficient time to form a final judgment of the real value of the League of Nations, nevertheless it affords a convenient point at which to take stock of the accomplishments and failures of the League since its inception. There is no doubt but that the League has been and still is, especially in the United States, misrepresented, misinterpreted and misjudged both by its friends and enemies. It may be safely said that the League of Nations has neither realized the hopes of its most enthusiastic friends nor the fears of its enemies. It has shown itself to be neither a panacea for all international ills nor has it proved to be a super-state. Whether or not it has proved its worth in two years of its existence each person must judge for himself after a fair consideration of its record. But in forming one's judgment it is well to keep in mind the words of Arthur Sweetser, "It is not by the outcome of any specific plan or project that the league should be judged, but rather on the broad question as to whether or not a scaffolding has been set up, however rough it may be, about which the nations may construct an edifice looking first to the preservation of peace and second to the betterment of world conditions by internal co-operation."²

Because of sentiment which had developed during the World War, sentiment which President Woodrow Wilson was largely instrumental in crystallizing, the League of Nations was a subject of prime importance for the consideration of the Peace Conference which convened at Paris on the 18th of January, 1919. At the second plenary session of the conference, on January 25, 1919, a committee of fifteen was appointed to present a plan for a League, in accordance with a resolution passed that day. This committee reported a preliminary plan at the third plenary session of the conference, February 14, 1919, which was later modified to form the Covenant of

the League of Nations, consisting of twenty-six articles. This Covenant was adopted by the Peace Conference at a plenary session, April 28, 1919, and was the basis of the Treaty of Versailles, signed June 28, 1919.³

On the same day that it adopted the Covenant (April 28, 1919), the plenary session provided the machinery for organizing the League by voting that the Powers represented on the Council of the League be requested to name representatives to compose a committee of nine who should make plans for the League organization. This Organizing Committee proceeded to perform its duties, holding its first meeting at the Hotel Crillon, Paris, on May 5, 1919. Sir James Eric Drummond, the acting Secretary-General of the League, was invited to attend, while the committee itself was composed of the following membership:—M. Pichon, France, Chairman; Edward M. House, United States; Lord Robert Cecil, Great Britain; Marquis Imperiali, Italy; Viscount Chinda, Japan; M. Rolin Jaquemyns, Belgium; M. Venizelos, Greece; Jose Quinones de Leon, Spain; and Antonio O. de Magalhaes, Brazil.

The Secretary-General was named in the Annex of the Covenant so it was possible to establish provisional offices of the League at London. With the help of the committee he proceeded to form his working organization. Many other phases of organization were begun, including steps to secure headquarters for the League at Geneva, Switzerland, as provided for in Article 7 of the Covenant.⁴

Though the machinery of the League could not legally function until the Peace Treaty was ratified, the work of the organization went on. By January 10, 1920, the Secretariat was fully organized and ready to undertake officially the work which it had been performing provisionally. Credit for this must be given chiefly to Sir Drummond, who has under him now about three hundred and twenty-two assistants and experts. These are organized into ten great sections for external duties.

The first of these sections is the political, which furnishes the means of communication between national governments and the Secretariat. It is both a research and corresponding bureau on political matters. Paul Mantoux was appointed the first director.

Next is the Legal section, composed of experts in international law, who act as the legal advisers of

the Council and the Secretary-General. A leading Dutch jurist, Dr. Joost von Hamel, was named the first director of this section.

A third section is the Economic and Finance, of which J. A. Slater was named as the first head. Its duties are largely the compiling of statistics and the forwarding of economic reconstruction. This section was the first League organization to function in the public interest, for it invited members of the International Institute of Agriculture and of the International Statistical Institute to a conference on August 14 and 15, 1919, at London, to discuss the relation of these bodies to the League.

Erik Colban, of Norway, was appointed first director of the Administrative Commission section, which has as its chief duty the maintenance of communication between the permanent commissions provided for in the Peace Treaty and the Secretariat.

The Transit section, with Professor Attolico, of Italy, as the first director, has as its duty to work out conventions for the unhampered use of international waterways, ports and railroads in Europe.

Pierre Comert was named first director of the Information section which has as its duty the publication of the League's Official Journal and other communiques.

The first director of the Mandate section was George Louis Beer, of the United States, who died in the spring of 1920. The work of this section is to link the Secretariat with the Mandatory commission.

Before the war there were about sixty international bureaus, commissions and offices established by treaties, and about five hundred private international organizations. It is the duty of the International Bureaus section, of which Dr. Inatzo Nitobe, of Japan, was appointed first director, to bring these organizations under the League and to maintain contact with those that remain without.

The Registry Bureau for Treaties section, organized to carry out Article 18 of the Covenant, published about seventy treaties up to the end of 1920.

The tenth section is known as the International Health and Social Questions section. Its duties are chiefly the combatting of disease, famine and vice.⁵

To co-ordinate the work of the Secretariat, there is a general board composed of the Secretary-General, four Under-Secretaries-General, and the Directors of the ten sections. This rather complex organization has been performing efficient work in the gathering of information and in executing decisions of the League Assembly and Council—and this in spite of the fact that the personnel of the Secretariat is drawn from all over the world. They work not as representatives of their nations but, as nearly as possible, as impartial experts. It should be mentioned that the Secretary-General acts in that capacity for both the Council and the Assembly.⁶

A second executive organization of the League of Nations, provided for in Articles II, IV and V of the Covenant, is what is known as the Council of the League. Its personnel consists of one representative from each of the five principal powers (the place

of the United States being still vacant) and one representative from each of four members of the League. The Covenant named as these four Belgium, Brazil, Greece and Spain, whose representatives should sit until the Assembly should designate their successors.⁷

Shortly after the ratification of the Peace Treaty, President Woodrow Wilson, as provided in Article V of the Covenant, summoned the first meeting of the Council, to be held in Paris at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, January 16, 1920. On that day representatives of eight countries assembled at the appointed place, Belgium being represented by Paul Hymans, Brazil by Gastao da Cunha, the British Empire by Earl Curzon, France by Leon Bourgeois, who was chosen as the first chairman; Greece by Eleftherios Konstaninos Venizelos, Italy by E. Maggiorino Ferraris, Japan by M. K. Matsui, and Spain by Jose Quinones de Leon. All these men held high positions in the official service of their respective nations.⁸

That this meeting was a memorable one in the world's history was recognized by M. Bourgeois, who in his keynote speech said, "January 16, 1920, will go down to history as the date of the birth of the new world. The decision to be taken today will be in the name of all States which adhere to the Covenant. It will be the first decree of all the free nations leaguings themselves together for the first time in the world to substitute right for might."⁹

Though the Covenant does not require the Council to meet oftener than once a year, ten meetings were held before the meeting of the first Assembly in November, 1920. Meetings were held in various European countries represented in the Council, it being the custom to choose as the president of each session the representative of the country in which the meeting was being held. Meetings of the Council, as well as of the other League organizations, are now held at Geneva, Switzerland, the permanent seat of the League.¹⁰

To detail the work done by the Council in these ten sessions would be a tedious task, but it must be said that much was accomplished to get the League of Nations under way. While only one question was considered at the first meeting, the agenda of the tenth session held at Brussels, October 20 to 28, 1920, included twenty-two questions. Some of the most important acts of the Council in these ten sessions were to provide for the government of the territory of the Saar and of Danzig; the establishments of various commissions; the considerations of requests of countries for admission to the League; the admission of Switzerland as a member; fixing the budgets of the League; consideration of health conditions; consideration of the Aaland Islands question; the establishment of permanent League headquarters at Geneva; consideration of the Poland-Lithuania dispute; steps for the protection of minorities, including Armenia; the consideration of mandates; and the preparations for the first meeting of the Assembly. Though in many instances no definite settlement of questions under consideration was reached, yet war was prevented between Sweden

and Finland over the Aaland Islands, while hostilities between Poland and Lithuania were checked pending later settlement.¹¹

Probably the outstanding work of the Council in this period was the summoning of the International Financial Conference which met in Brussels from September 24 to October 8, 1920. Thirty-nine nations were represented here, including Germany, Austria, Hungary and Bulgaria. The United States was unofficially represented. The eighty-nine experts gathered here thoroughly reviewed the world's financial condition, gathered statistics and information, and formulated a report embodying specific recommendations in regard to public finance, currency and exchange, international trade and commerce, and international action with special reference to credits. Among the recommendations was that for an international credit organization, and that for the postponement of all claims against Austria on condition that she accept the credit scheme of the League. This action saved Austria from hopeless bankruptcy.¹²

Up to about the middle of October, 1921, the Council had held fourteen sessions. The work of the first two sessions of the Council in 1921 was principally to carry out the recommendations of the first Assembly. Part of the third 1921 session, beginning September 1, was to prepare the agenda for the second Assembly. The Council continued in session during the meeting of this Assembly as it had during the meeting of the first Assembly. Its attention in part was devoted to the settlement of the troublesome Silesian question. In general it may be said that the work of the Council in 1921 has been of a more definite and decisive character than its work of the first year. This can be explained by the fact that the Council, through its first year's experience, has gained confidence in itself. It has passed through the experimental stage when it had to proceed with no precedents to follow, determining largely for itself what its course should be. Further, the work of the Council, in the main, received endorsement of the first Assembly representing all the nations in the League, and this added to the self-confidence of the Council.

One of the most important decisions of the Council is that which relates to the Aaland Islands, which were claimed by both Sweden and Finland. The dispute was brought to the attention of the League by Great Britain. The Council after carefully considering both sides of the question, returned a verdict June 24, 1921, in favor of Finland. While the islands are to be under Finnish sovereignty, they are to be neutralized from the military standpoint. Sweden protested against this decision, but agreed, through her representative sitting with the Council while the question was being discussed, to recognize it.¹³

A rather more difficult question to settle was that relating to Poland and Lithuania, who had for a long time been in dispute over the possession of Vilna. Difficulties raised by the two disputants made a proposed plebiscite inadvisable, so the Council of the League undertook to effect a direct settlement. The question was complicated by the military occupation

of Vilna by the Polish General Zeligowski. His government refused to support this action and proclaimed the general a rebel. The Council assigned the subject to one of their non-permanent members, Paul Hymans, who decided that Lithuania should have jurisdiction over the territory in dispute. The Council unanimously agreed to this and published its report on September 25, 1921. The Assembly, which was then in session, voted to give the Council its moral support and called on Poland to withdraw its troops from Vilna. Poland seems to have no recourse except to abide by the Council's decision.¹⁴

A third important decision of the Council is that relating to Silesia. It was hoped that this long-continued dispute between Germany and Poland over the possession of Upper Silesia would be settled by the plebiscite held March 20, 1921. Though the vote was 713,700 to 460,700 in favor of Germany, Poland refused to accept the result. Accordingly, the Supreme Council on August 24, 1921, referred the question to the League of Nations. The League Council began consideration of the question on August 29, but soon referred the subject to a committee composed of the four non-permanent members of the Council. Their report was unanimously adopted by the Council, October 12, and after being referred to the two disputants and the Council of Ambassadors, was made public on October 20, 1921. The decision of the Council divides Upper Silesia almost equally between Poland and Germany. This was received with dissatisfaction, but in all probability the decision will stand, for now France and Great Britain are in accord on the matter.¹⁵

Two other cases of international dispute came to the Council's attention. The first was Persia's appeal for help in the face of an invasion by the Russian Bolsheviks, but direct negotiations between the two parties resulted in a settlement without League action. Another case was that of Panama and Costa Rica, in which the Council found it unnecessary to take action because of the mediation of the United States.¹⁶

A third executive organization of the League of Nations is the Assembly composed of members of the League, each of whom may have three representatives, but only one vote. As in the Council all decisions of the Assembly were to be by unanimous vote except where otherwise provided in the Covenant or the Peace Treaty.¹⁷ However, this article of the Covenant has been amended by the second Assembly.

The power to call the first Assembly was conferred by Article VI of the Covenant on the President of the United States. Accordingly the Council, on May 19, 1920, requested him to summon the Assembly in November. On July 12, 1920, President Wilson, in response to this invitation, summoned the first Assembly to meet in Geneva on November 15, 1920.¹⁸ Thirty-one plenary sessions were held before the first Assembly adjourned on December 18, 1920. Forty-one nations were represented at the opening session, including those named in the annex of the Covenant as the original members and the thirteen

states also named in the annex as being invited to accede to the Covenant. Of the former group, the United States was unrepresented because of failure to ratify the Peace Treaty, while three others were only temporarily unrepresented. The thirteen states of the second group had all completed their adhesion to the League between July 18, 1919, and May 16, 1920, and their representatives sat on equal terms with representatives of the first group.¹⁹

The first work of the Assembly was that of organization. To the credit of the group, this work was completed in two days, though most of the procedure had to be determined as questions came up. Paul Hymans, of Belgium, the temporary chairman, was chosen permanent president of the first Assembly by a vote of thirty-five out of forty-one votes cast. Six commissions were created as follows:—1. General organization. 2. Technical organization. 3. Creation of a Permanent Court of International Justice. 4. Secretariat and budget. 5. Examination of applications for new admissions. 6. Reduction of armaments, economic weapon, and mandates. It was decided to have twelve vice-presidents, the chairman of the six commissions to constitute six of these, *ex-officio*, while the other six were elected by the Assembly. For some days the Assembly worked under provisional rules of procedure prepared by the Secretary-General and the Council, but at the eleventh session the Committee on General Organization reported a set of twenty-eight rules which were adopted by the Assembly. The most important of these provided for regular meetings of the Assembly the first Monday of each September and made provision for calling special meetings; prescribed the duties of the officers; methods of voting; and stated where the Assembly and Council have concurrent jurisdiction, neither shall interfere with the other if the other had first taken cognizance of the subject.²⁰

One of the duties of the Assembly is the election of the four non-permanent members of the Council. After a discussion, the idea of obligatory rotation of these members among the lesser nations was rejected. When the ballot was taken at the twenty-fifth plenary session, with thirty-nine states voting, Spain, Brazil, Belgium and China were designated as the four non-permanent members for the ensuing year.²¹

Another accomplishment of the first Assembly was the admission of six new League members, Finland, Luxemburg, Costa Rica, Albania, and two recent enemy states, Austria and Bulgaria. Armenia was not admitted because of conditions in the Near East. Four states, Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Georgia, while not admitted to the League, were given representation on the technical organizations of the League. One member was lost, Argentine, on December 4, 1920, notifying the Assembly of its withdrawal because the Assembly would not accept amendments to the Covenant offered by the Argentine delegation.²²

The amendment Argentine desired was one which would permit all sovereign states to be admitted to the League on application. The three Scandinavian

countries, Sweden, Norway and Denmark, proposed amendments to the Articles III, IV, XIII and XVI of the Covenant. The Canadian delegation proposed to eliminate Article X. But the Assembly decided that the Covenant had not been tried sufficiently in its original form, so the amendments were voted down. However, a special Amendments Committee was appointed to consider the whole question and report to the next Assembly.²³

Among other things it was decided at this Assembly that members of the Secretariat and the International Labor Office should be appointed for five years. Also the League budgets were approved as follows: (1) For the first fiscal period, May 5, 1919, to June 30, 1920, 291,078 francs. (2) For the second fiscal period, April 1 to December 31, 1920, 10,000,000 gold francs. (3) For the third period, 1921, 21,500,000 gold francs. This latter budget was divided among the members of the League on the basis of the scheme adopted by the Universal Postal Union, as provided in Article VI of the Covenant. Under this scheme the states in class one, as Great Britain, France, and Japan had to pay 1,041,666 gold francs towards the 1921 budget, while the two states in class VII, Albania and Liberia, had to pay only 41,666 $\frac{2}{3}$ gold francs.²⁴

Other work of the first Assembly had to do with plans for the formation of various permanent commissions. One of the most important actions was the adoption of the draft scheme for a Permanent Court of International Justice. Since the establishment of this Court and other organizations of the League was not the work of the Assembly alone, these must be considered separately.

From the preceding account it will be seen that the first Assembly accomplished important work. If nothing more it disposed of two fears in regard to the League's future. First, it showed that over forty nations with widely divergent ambitions and ideas could work together without their Assemblies resulting in anarchy and confusion. Second, it showed that the Assembly was more than a debating society and that the Council was not to monopolize all the real power.²⁵

To quote the words of President Hymans at the last session of the Assembly, "It was said five weeks ago, at the opening of the Session, that we were making a great experiment. Today, I think I can say that the experiment has succeeded. The League of Nations has found itself; it works; it acts; it lives, and it has the will to live."²⁶

The second Assembly began its sessions as scheduled on the 5th of September, 1921, at Geneva, with thirty-nine nations represented at the initial meeting. The opening meeting was presided over by Dr. Wellington Koo, of China, the acting president of the Council. Jonkheer H. A. van Karsbeek, Foreign Minister of Holland, was elected permanent president of the Assembly by a vote of twenty-one to fifteen.²⁷

Many important questions came before this Assem-

bly, not all of which were handled to the satisfaction of all concerned. One of the subjects to be considered was that of disarmaments. The first Assembly had sent a request to the member nations to keep their military and naval budgets for the next two years within the appropriations of the current year (1920). Replies from twenty-six nations were received up to September 16, 1921. Seven replied in the negative, while sixteen acceded to the request conditionally. Only three states, Bolivia, China and Guatemala, accepted the recommendation unconditionally.²⁸ Little else was done to forward disarmament, as it was decided that the Washington conference could deal with the question more effectively and that disarmament could best be secured by agreement among the great powers.²⁹

In the session on September 22, 1921, the Assembly voted to admit three small states to League membership,—Latvia, Esthonia and Lithuania.³⁰ The admission of these states makes the present membership of the League fifty-two.

A difficult problem came before the Assembly in the form of the Tacna-Arica dispute between Bolivia and Chile. The problem was more difficult because of the danger that the United States government would regard any action by the League in the matter as an infringement on the Monroe Doctrine. It was finally decided that the League had no competence in the matter.³¹

Another matter which the Assembly handled in what seems a weak manner was that of the Albanian boundaries. The best the Assembly could do in response to Albania's appeal against Greek and Jugo-Slavic encroachments, was to pass a resolution urging Albania to accept the decision of the Council of Ambassadors which was engaged in fixing the boundaries. The Assembly could do nothing more as Greece and Jugo-Slavia were backed by France, England, Italy and Japan. The Albanians are dissatisfied with this, claiming that inasmuch as their boundaries were laid down in 1913, the Peace Conference or the Council of Ambassadors has no right to fix them.³²

The action of the Assembly with regard to the control of the white slave trade was more decisive. On September 29, the Assembly decided that it was not assuming the functions of a super-state in adopting the convention proposed by Great Britain. This convention extends the provisions of the conventions of 1904 and 1910, and is to be open for signature by all nations until March 1922. As soon as a country signs the instrument it becomes effective for that nation.³³

The Assembly by passing several amendments to the Covenant showed that that instrument is not inflexible. On October 3, Article XXVI, which required a unanimous vote for amendments was changed to read as follows:—"Amendments to the present Covenant, the text of which shall have been voted by the Assembly on a three-fourths majority in which there shall be included the votes of all the members of the Council represented at the meeting,

will take effect when ratified by the members of the League whose representatives composed the Council when the vote was taken and by a majority of those whose representatives formed the Assembly."³⁴

On October 4, as a concession to the small nations, the first paragraph of Article XVI, relating to putting into effect an economic blockade, was amended. The amendment stated that the Council might postpone the time when any particular nation should join the blockade against an offending member under Articles XII, XIII, and XV, where such postponement would facilitate the attainment of the object or would minimize the loss and inconvenience that would be caused to the member called on to join in the blockade.

The proposed amendment of Argentine, offered at the 1920 Assembly, relating to the automatic admission of all sovereign states to the League, and Canada's proposal to eliminate Article X were again postponed until the next Assembly.

The completion of plans and the election of the judges for the International Court of Justice made necessary the amending of Articles XII, XIII, XIV and XV.

On October 5, an amendment to Article VI was adopted, fixing a new schedule of assessments to be effective during 1922. By this such a country as France, at the top of the scale, will pay 9.2 per cent. or 1,800,000 gold francs toward the 1922 budget, while Liberia, at the bottom of the scale, will pay but .21 per cent.

It was the policy of the Assembly to adopt only such amendments as were necessary to put the League machinery into effective operation. The delegates were of the opinion that more experience was necessary before further changes should be made.³⁵

The second Assembly of the League adjourned at six o'clock, October 5, 1921, after re-electing Belgium, Brazil, China and Spain as the four non-permanent members of the Council. In summing up the work of the Assembly, President van Karnebeek said that those who had expected miracles from the League which would transform the world suddenly into a paradise, would be disappointed, but the pessimists who had predicted the dissolution of the League would be confounded by the result of the work accomplished.³⁶

If any one thing were to be mentioned as the outstanding accomplishment of the League of Nations up to the present time, it would be the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice, as provided in Article XIV of the Covenant. This has been accomplished through the three League organizations considered, the Secretariat, the Council and the Assembly. The first step was taken on February 13, 1920, when the Council appointed a Commission of twelve jurists, including Elihu Root of the United States, to prepare a plan for such a court. This commission deliberated at The Hague from June 16 to July 24, and reported its plan to the Council meeting at San Sebastian, July 30 to August 4, 1920.

It was approved by the Council and submitted to the member states of the League for ratification. It was also submitted to the first Assembly which gave its approval to the plan. This draft scheme consisted of sixty-two articles, divided into three chapters covering the details of organization (30 articles), competence of the court (6 articles), and procedure (26 articles).³⁷

The chief obstacle to the establishment of such a court at The Hague in 1907 was the election of judges. This difficulty was surmounted by allowing all nations to nominate judges and then elect the allotted number (eleven full judges and four deputy judges) by vote of the Assembly and the Council sitting separately. Eighty-nine candidates were named by thirty-five nations, but five withdrew their names. Though the United States made no nomination it was agreed by the delegates that an American should be elected. The election took place on September 14, 1921, with the following results:

Full judges—Viscount Robert Bannatyne Finlay, of Great Britain; Charles Andre Weiss, of France; Dionisio Anzilotti, of Italy; John Bassett Moore, of the United States; Rafael Altamira y Gravea, of Spain; Senator Ruy Barbosa, of Brazil; Antonio de Bustamante, of Cuba; Max Huber, of Switzerland; B. C. J. Loder, of Holland; Didrik Galtrup Gjedde Nyholm, of Denmark, and Yoruzo Oda, of Japan.

Deputy judges—Negulesco, of Rumania; Wang, of China; Yovanitch, of Jugo-Slavia, and F. V. N. Beichmann, of Norway. The latter was not chosen until September 16, because of a deadlock between the Council and the Assembly.

The salary of the judges was fixed at 15,000 florins (about \$6,000) annually with extra allowances. The salary of the president of the Court was fixed at 60,000 florins and it was provided that he should live at The Hague, the seat of the Court. The operations of this Court will begin about the first of 1922.³⁸

The International Labor Organization comes under the Peace Treaty and not the Covenant, but nevertheless, it is a League of Nations organization, as is shown by the fact that its finances are administered by the League Secretariat. The chief work of this organization has been the preparing of an international labor code which has been submitted to the members of the League for approval. This organization also produces valuable publications and maintains contact with national bureaus which represent it in the leading capitals of the world, including that of the United States. The first conference of this organization, composed of the representatives of governments, capital and labor, met at Washington in November, 1919. At this time six draft conventions to be signed as treaties were drawn up and nine recommendations seeking to better labor conditions were adopted. The fourth International Labor Conference convened at Geneva on October 25, 1921, with delegates from about fifty nations present. The United States was unofficially represented by observers.³⁹

Before an account of the work of the League of

Nations is complete, brief consideration must be given to several commissions of an administrative character which have been created through the collaboration of the three great organizations of the League, the Secretariat, the Council and the Assembly. These are twelve in number. The first was the Commission of Jurists whose work in drawing up the draft scheme for the Permanent Court of International Justice has already been mentioned.

Second is the Armaments Commission, which, begun by the Council as a Permanent Advisory Commission on Military, Air and Naval Questions, has developed into a Disarmament Commission. Its work has been largely held in abeyance because of the summoning of the Washington Conference.

Third, there is the Economic Blockade Commission, which has as its duty to study how the League ought to use its economic weapons.

Fourth, comes the Communications and Transport Commission, which has for its chief duty the lessening or removal of restrictions upon the transit of passengers and goods throughout Europe. Under the supervision of this commission a conference was held at Barcelona, Spain, beginning March 10, 1921, for the consideration of transit problems. The United States was invited to this conference but did not attend.

Springing out of the International Financial Conference held at Brussels in September, 1920, has come a fifth commission, known as the Finance and Economics Commission. It is the principal reconstructive agent of the League.

A sixth is the International Credits Commission, also an outgrowth of the Brussels conference. Its chief function is to act as a mediating agent between creditor and debtor nations.

The International Health Organization forms the seventh great League commission. It has brought within the League many of the world's health organizations, including the Red Cross, which has formed within the League, an International League of Red Cross Societies.

An eighth is the Mandatory Commission which has as its chief duty to receive the reports of governments having charge of mandated areas. In this connection it should be mentioned that the unwillingness of the United States to treat directly with the League in regard to mandates, has greatly retarded the satisfactory settlement of this matter.

The ninth is the Commission for Regulating the Opium and Drug Traffic. The title suggests its duties, which have to do chiefly with reviving the control of this traffic which unfortunately was lost during the war.

The Revision Commission, the tenth to be considered, has for its work the study of proposed amendments to the Covenant. That it has been functioning is shown by the fact that several amendments were adopted by the second Assembly.

The Statistical Commission, the eleventh in number, as its name suggests, acts as a clearing house for the numerous societies of statistical information and research.

Twelfth, and last, is the Commission on the Deportation of Women and Children in Asia Minor. In connection with this commission a conference on white slavery was held in June, 1921, at Geneva. It was partly as a result of this conference that the second Assembly adopted its white slave convention.⁴⁰

From this review of the work of the League of Nations in the first two years of its existence it will be seen that it is a going concern. That person who pens such articles as "Useless League" and "League Ineffective," shows a gross ignorance of the facts. Whatever one's opinion may be of the League, it cannot be denied that it is performing good work. To quote from the *London Times*, "It is true that . . . the league is still a tender plant. In the course of the past year it has experienced, through the naughtiness of men's hearts, some very chilling winds. It has fallen short in many respects of the attainment for which its more ardent cultivators hoped. But although one may point to evils which it has, so far, failed as depressingly as the diplomats to remedy, its roots are taking firmer hold, and, as it grows in knowledge of what is possible of accomplishment, its flowers will increase in number and in worth."⁴¹

Without doubt, the work of the League of Nations has been and is being hindered by the refusal of the United States government to enter in. Whether or not this country will permanently hold itself aloof from the fifty-two nations now in the League is a question for the future to decide. The official attitude of the League was expressed by Leon Bourgeois, in a speech before the second Assembly, when he said that "the League will continue on its way with the hope that some day the people of America will come to see that it is working for the same ideas they love."⁴²

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Communication—Standard Tests

In an article entitled "Existing Standard Tests in History," in the December issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, the Hahn History Scale is wrongly classified. A standardized scale does its best work when it is used for the purpose for which it was constructed.

The Hahn History Scale was constructed for the sole purpose of testing and improving the quality of the history teaching in the seventh and eighth grades. To construct such a scale three requirements had to be met: (1) to make the scale sufficiently extensive in order to test the teaching of the *whole subject*; (2) to make the scale test the teaching of important and essential subject matter only; and (3) to make the scale test the various abilities necessary to the mastery of history as it is being taught in the elementary school.

The first requirement was met by including in the scale enough exercises to cover all parts of the subject. There are exercises in the scale on every important event or movement in American history. The scale constitutes a complete test of the whole subject. To meet the second requirement all exercises in the scale were based only on the subject matter found in each of six modern texts. It was taken for granted that such subject matter is important and essential. The number of exercises given to each period of history was determined by the amount of space devoted to it by the various authors. Of the 283 exercises in the scale, 20 are based on the Period of Discovery and Exploration, 40 on the Colonial Period, 40 on the Revolutionary Period, 73 on the National Period prior to the Civil War, 68 on the part following the Civil War, and 37 on recent and current history. The third requirement could only be met by analyzing the composite history ability into its essential elements and including in the scale exercises by which to test each of these lesser abilities. The following lesser abilities were teased out of the complex: (1) the ability required to give time relations of historical events; (2) the ability to give place relations; (3) the ability to give cause-and-effect relations; (4) memory ability; (5) comprehension ability; (6) the ability to think inductively in history; (7) the ability to think deductively; (8) the ability to see the interrelation between the past and the present; (9) the ability to organize events into large movements; (10) the ability to make historical comparisons and judgments. Exercises were placed in the scale for the purpose of testing each of the above named abilities.

How then is the Hahn History Scale to be classified? Surely not as a mere test of memory ability. Less than one-third of the exercises in the scale can be used as a memory test. At least one-half of the exercises test some form of the thinking or reasoning ability. The scale was so constructed that its fundamental use might be diagnostic. As such it should be an instrument for testing and improving the quality of history teaching.

H. H. HAHN.

State Normal School, Wayne, Neb.

Chinese History as a Field for Research

BY PROFESSOR KENNETH SCOTT LATOURETTE, DENISON UNIVERSITY

Few American historians realize the wealth of material which Chinese history presents to the student. We recognize in a general way, perhaps, if we are working in modern history, the importance of China in the events of the past few decades, and at times we are conscious that the nation with its three or four hundred millions, the greatest fairly homogeneous group of mankind, inhabiting as it does a land of great natural resources, seems to be destined to play a large part in the future of the world. There are only a handful, however, who appreciate the fact that this people, with a continuous history of about three thousand years, has records equal in volume and probably superior in quality to those of any other over a similar period of time, and that these records are fairly accessible to Occidental scholars and present an opportunity for investigation second to none in the world.

The Chinese have the historical sense to a very high degree. For at least twenty-five hundred years they have been interested in their own past and have regarded the study of history as a necessary part of the training of a gentleman. Especially has the Confucian tradition emphasized its importance. The works that have resulted have been voluminous and varied in their nature. There are the histories of the various dynasties, a large proportion of them based upon contemporary records kept by official scribes. To insure accuracy and impartiality these contemporary records were to be kept secret, even from the eye of the sovereign. After the dynasty had disappeared they were opened, and an official account prepared on the basis of them. Thus at the present time scholars are at work compiling the history of the Manchu dynasty on the basis of its official records. The histories of the preceding dynasties which have long been compiled are easily purchased in relatively inexpensive editions and are an invaluable source.

In addition to these official dynastic histories there are many general compilations of greater or less length, attempting to give the story of great sections of the nation's career. The Confucian classics contain one of the earliest of these, *The Book of History* or the *Shu Ching*, *Ssu Ma Ch'ien*, of the first and second centuries before our era, has been called the Chinese Herodotus and was more critical and voluminous than the latter. There are, too, extensive encyclopedias and collections of standard works and books of travel and biography which are valuable sources.

Chinese historians have in some respects been almost modern. They have developed the critical instinct and their better works have been not at all over credulous. They have set high store by original documents, too, and have frequently imbedded these in their works. They have been, naturally, primarily interested in political history, but they have also

noticed other phases of the life of the people and one can gather from them a fairly well-rounded picture of the main features of each age.

Chinese historical sources are, on the whole, fairly accessible. Many can be purchased in the open market. Many more are to be found in private libraries in China and Japan. Unfortunately there are no important public libraries in China itself, but in the Library of Congress in Washington, and in Paris and London, there are valuable collections, and here and there in the Occident are to be found smaller private and university collections.

In addition to printed sources, much is to be learned from archaeology. For many centuries the Chinese have been interested in this subject, but for various reasons extensive excavations have never been undertaken, and there has been made not even a beginning in such exhumations as have opened for us new chapters of history in the Tigris-Euphrates valley, Crete, Italy, and other sections of the Near East and the Occident.

On the existing printed records a beginning, even if only a beginning, has been made by Western scholars. There are excellent English, French, and Latin editions of the classical books, and before his untimely death Chavannes had translated with very full notes a large section of *Ssu Ma Ch'ien*. Studies have been made of some phases of the history of almost every important dynasty, and the western student need not feel himself lost in a forest utterly unblazed by those of his own race and training. Very few Occidental scholars are at work, however, in the field,—so few, indeed, that it is sometimes difficult to find men competent to judge of the value of such work as is being done. Neither here nor in Great Britain or Europe are there many who are seriously delving into the Chinese records. Here is a great field, almost untouched by Westerners, at once fascinating and richly rewarding and one which it can scarcely be too strongly hoped that a number of younger American scholars will enter.

The training needed for such a task, while formidable, is by no means impossible. The scholar who purposes entering on it should, of course, have a knowledge of the chief European languages, especially French and German, for in these some work has been done. He must, moreover, learn Chinese, and it would be advisable if he would learn Japanese. A beginning can be made in these languages in at least one center in America and in either Paris or London. The student can, however, usually make better progress by a residence in the Far Orient. If he has means, two years of study in connection with one of the language schools which have been organized in China for foreigners would give him the requisite foundation in Chinese, and Japanese could be acquired later in Japan. He would, of course, find that a mastery of these languages could be acquired

only after years of study based on the foundations so laid, but that he would expect. If he has no private means to finance the years of preparation, he can either enter the American consular service in China, in which he would be given at government expense a fair training in the fundamentals of the language and during his years of service pursue his studies of the language and life of the people, or he can go into the maritime customs service of the Chinese government, a branch which is largely manned by foreigners, or he can go out as a teacher, either under some missionary society or the Chinese government, and spend his leisure time on the language. He can, indeed, do important historical research as a pastime in any of these occupations and follow one of them for life.

If, after making his preparation, he wishes to spend his life in the United States, he may need to wait for some little while before a chair will be offered him in which he can give his entire time to teaching Chinese and Chinese history. In most cases

he will need to follow his chosen subject as a hobby either while acting as curator in some museum or as a teacher of some other branch of history. If, however, he has had a good training in history, and if he makes himself really a master of Chinese and shows this by his publications, it is reasonably certain that sooner or later some chair will be offered him where he can devote his entire energy to the subject. It would seem to be only a question of a few years until several of our larger universities will establish chairs in Chinese, and the supply of men really competent to fill them is so limited that a really qualified man will probably not need to wait long for an invitation to occupy one of them.

Whatever the sacrifice needed, the fascination of working in so rich a field, and the joy of making possible a better understanding in the Occident of the largest nation and of helping the Chinese themselves to understand their own past will, to a man who sees the possibilities, be ample recompense for a lifetime of labor.

The College Course in General United States History from Another Viewpoint

BY PROFESSOR MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR., HAMILTON COLLEGE

Two articles in recent issues of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* have so impressed me as to move me to contribute my mite towards the discussion of the undergraduate history course.

First is the article in the issue for November, by Professor Mary Wilhelmine Williams on the lecture method. With that "indictment" I find myself in complete agreement. To me, it seems clear that there is no longer a place for a straight lecture course in the undergraduate field. Incidental comment by the instructor, with an occasional lecture, I of course see the value of and concede the necessity for. But for an entire course in history for undergraduates to consist of lectures is, I believe, an anachronism. So I trust that every college teacher and administrator will read and ponder Professor Williams' paper.

Next I am struck by Professor R. H. Gabriel's article in the October *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* on the course in general United States history at Yale. At a glance, it might appear that there is no direct relation between these two papers. Yet to me it seems that the course outlined so ably by Professor Gabriel might, in the hands of inexperienced or indolent instructors, degenerate into a lecture course.

Such a course, well administered, has much to commend it. For such an institution as Yale, with a large teaching staff and adequate library facilities the method is indeed admirable. How about the small college, where perhaps one instructor must give all the history courses (thus making small sections impossible)—where the library appropriations must be expended with the utmost care, so that instead of

ten copies of one book, one copy of each of ten must be purchased? These considerations, added to my dissent from one or two points in Professor Gabriel's paper, have induced me to set forth a plan for a general course in United States history, adapted to the small college, with the one-teacher history department.

In the first place, I dissent from the proposition that the textbook is necessarily an obstacle to, or a substitute for, thought on the part of the student. Secondly, I disagree emphatically with the following statement [page 237]: "There is obviously no time for students to choose critically among the sources or to put source material together synthetically. This is the exacting and time-consuming labor of the graduate student. *It has no place in the general course.*" I have italicized the parts with which I take issue. I agree that the selection of the sources must largely be done for the undergraduate, and that the source method is mainly the province of the graduate seminar.

Source material *has* a place in the undergraduate course—an important place. Allow me to expand these ideas a little, by explaining what I have found to be a feasible method for the general course in United States history. (*En passant*, it is obvious that with suitable adaptations it is practicable for any other undergraduate course in history.)

The undergraduate history student needs a textbook both to give continuity and system to his knowledge, and as a central thread on which to hang his own collateral reading as well as the comments and additions—or even *semi-occasional* lectures—of the

teacher. For these reasons, one textbook is preferable for the entire course, if a suitable one can be found. I readily concede that this is difficult and it may be better to use two—one each semester—which dovetail satisfactorily. The use of thirty volumes, even from so excellent a series as *The Chronicles of America*, seems to me to endanger that very continuity which the textbook should ensure. Again, it must necessitate so much supplying of connective tissue by the instructor as to run the risk of degenerating into a lecture course.

One reason why so many college teachers find a textbook a substitute for thought on the part of the students is that the average freshman has not been taught how to study. Being either too indolent to teach him or being sanguine enough to assume that the student does know how to study, too many college teachers—occupants of college chairs, rather—have taken up the lecture method as the line of least resistance for them, and as cure for the swallowing whole of a textbook by their victims. For several years, whether as the foot, the head, or the whole anatomy of a history department, I have found it necessary to spend a large portion of the first semester in teaching lower classmen how to study.

To the end that the text may not be gobbled up without chewing, I require every student to make an outline synopsis of the textbook, according to printed directions for note-taking, which I give him. By concentrating on a paragraph or a page earnestly enough to reduce it to a note of a dozen words or so, the student is being forced to think, being compelled to select the important points, to decide for himself *what* to note, to master the essentials and omit the details. Also the mere mechanical act of writing down the important points helps to impress them upon his memory, not merely until the next recitation, but as a basis for further thinking.

In the introductory course (which is a pre-requisite to all other history courses) these note books are collected and graded and criticized weekly. In the advanced classes, such as the general course in United States history, the intervals are longer and (purposely) irregular. "But such grading of note books is drudgery!" Of course, it is—quite monotonous drudgery when you have from seventy to a hundred and twenty-five per week to grade—but it is *drudgery that pays!*

As a corrective for the notion of "the infallibility of the textbook" I take occasion to call attention to every error that meets my eye, therein, whether due to the printer or to the bias or inaccuracy of the author.

The outline of the text occupies about four-fifths of one side of sheets of specially ruled paper, about eight inches by five. In the left margin are exact citations of the text for the items noted in the outline. The rest of the page is reserved for running notes (not outlines), from the collateral reading. Here also exact citations of author, work, volume and page must be made, but the student is cautioned to note only the new matter found in the supplementary reading. Should there be more of this than he has space for at the bottom of his page, the fact that he

is using a loose-leaf note book enables him to insert an extra page where needed. The back of the sheet is used for class notes, which include not only the comments and additions of the instructor, diagrams, maps, outlines and genealogies copied from the blackboard, but also the contributions of other students to the recitation.

Each student is given a minimum of parallel reading per week, which varies with the course, the text used and other local factors. Of course, the better students do much more than the minimum. To systematize this reading and correlate it with the text, thereby compelling a comparison of two or more accounts of the same event, a typewritten list of assignments by topics is put in the library convenient to the special history reserved shelves. A typical assignment runs thus:

TOPIC VIII: THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW ENGLAND. (Textbook, pp. 135-151; Harper's Atlas of American History, Maps 5, 8, 9; Shepherd's Historical Atlas, 189.)

Then follows a list of appropriate collateral readings, both source and secondary; political, economic, geographic, biographical, cultural. Not all of these titles are on the reserved shelf, only those likely to be in greatest demand. Students are encouraged to hunt for themselves other books and magazines not on the list.

To assure the necessary geographical background, not only are assignments made to various atlases, and the usual classroom use of maps indulged in, but at frequent intervals, specific problems in map drawing, such as XVIII Century colonial grants, are assigned. Evaluation of such maps and of the note books is made on the bases of improvement and positive excellence. Incidentally, frequently the best maps are posted on the bulletin board just outside the classroom, to let others see what a willing student can do. Of this bulletin board, more anon.

For the purpose of securing variety, as well as to ensure that every member of the class will know where to look for information on various lines and all will know more than the mere name of certain historical classics, each student is assigned two or more oral reports each semester. One assignment is always to some source, or collection of sources, such as *The Jesuit Relations* or Tyler's *Narratives of Early Virginia*. The other assignment is to a special topic, such as "John Woolman," "Education in the XVIII Century Colonies," "The Sons of Liberty," etc., etc. A list of such assignments is posted in the library with the following direction at the top:

"The student reporting on a given topic, will under 'Source' reports give the name of the work, author or editor, translator, if any, place and date of issue, publisher, the nature of the work, the style, the number of volumes, etc., and some notions of its contents. Under 'Special' reports the student will give a digest of the subject, with a list of the authorities upon which the report is based."

When one student gives his report, all the rest are expected to note the salient points of it, and are warned that on an examination they may be asked such questions as: "What sort of data would you use

the *Jesuit Relations* for?" "Where would you look for information about Nathaniel Bacon?"

To digress a moment—recently a sophomore, reporting on a collection of medieval sources, cited "The Throwback of the Roman Bridge Builder." Asked for the Latin of that title he replied: "Regesta Pontificum Romanorum"!

Besides such individual source readings as these assignments and the students' own selections from the bibliography, the whole class is held responsible for the working out of the exercises in that excellent collection, *Harper's Parallel Source Problems in United States History*. Just here let me say that these exercises could be rearranged to advantage, in a better chronological order. Also, I hope the publishers will soon bring out a new edition with additional problems from at least the following fields: the Reconstruction era, American imperialism, the Labor movement, the World War. These source problems are also worked out in the note books under the appropriate topics of the course. Occasionally I read extracts from sources not easily accessible to the class, to add vividness, interest, reality or local color to the recitation.

Both with source problems and in the ordinary recitations I seek to avoid the pitfall of the text's becoming a substitute for thought. Instead, I try to make it a stimulus thereto by the type of questions I ask. Wherever possible I ask a question beginning with "Why?" or "What was the significance of—?" rather than such questions as "What was the Massachusetts Body of Liberties?" "When and how was slavery introduced into Virginia?" That latter type, of course, tends to mere memorizing of the text, and some questions of that type must be asked. But if at every opportunity the instructor will ask such questions as "Why was the New Netherlands region essential to the English government?" "Compare the attitudes of the French and the English crowns towards their respective colonies," he will find that his class can really use a textbook and still think a little for themselves. Once I handed a paper to a class in English history and directed them to *open* their texts and write out how Joan of Arc helped England. "You mean France," they said unanimously. "No. I mean England." It took them some time to work it out, but the look of satisfaction on their faces when they had done it suggested that of the *Bourgeois Gentilhomme* when he discovered he had been talking prose all his life. I expect Professor Williams would say that the trouble about lecture courses is that the lecturer never makes that discovery.

It is clear, I hope, that a note book prepared in the manner indicated is the best material for review for tests and examinations, as well as an excellent preparation for the recitation. For several years I have had many students protest that such a note book requires more work than a history course is entitled to, that they can learn history without such a note book, in fact, can learn it more easily without, etc., etc. Smilingly, but stubbornly, I reply that the note book is an integral part of the course and without a

satisfactory note book no one can obtain credit for the course. It is interesting to note that many of the most ardent objectors to the note book in the prerequisite course elect other courses with me, year after year, and many steer their younger brothers or fraternity-mates to my courses. At more than one institution, I have silenced criticism, if not convinced the critics by a tabulation showing the relation between note books and examination papers. For example, in one final examination last year, taken by 94 students in three courses, I found that of 22 with excellent note books, 2 made 90 or more on the examination; 8 others made over 80; 5 more made over 70, and no one made below 60—the passing grade. Twenty-two also had good note books: 1 made 90; 5 made 80; 6 made over 70; 7 made over 60, the other 3 failing. Out of 39 men with mediocre note books, 1 made 90 on the examination, 1 made 80, 5 passed above 70, and 9 below, leaving 23 failing. Poor note books were turned in by 11 students, only 2 of whom made over 60. As the examination counted only part of the course, we may put this another way: Of the men failing the course, only one had a note book as good as mediocre; no one with a poor note book made as high as 70; no one with an excellent note book failed. The conclusion is obvious.

Returning now to the bulletin board, I wish to say a word about current events. It is clear that a history course which does not correlate with life today is to that extent a failure. Trying to avoid this failure I devote a part of the first recitation each week, in every course, to current events and try to correlate them with the course. Most of the discussion is contributed by the students—generally all of it. When no one mentions a certain event that I consider important I ask such a question as "Who is W. G. Lee?" "What is the most recent news from Poland?" "Why is Panama angry with Secretary Hughes?" To further the interest in current events I make use of my bulletin board. Only a small part of it is devoted to official announcements. The rest is covered with constantly changing clippings, which include news items of political, archeological, economic, geographic and literary interest; occasionally a poem, frequently cartoons and pictures or maps, with always a few good jokes. (I find that my colleagues invariably read these.) Nearly every student who passes through this building stops to browse at my bulletin board.

Such a course as the one I have suggested above, is, I submit, not only much more profitable than a lecture course for the undergraduate, but is better adapted, also, to the small college, and is easier to correlate with cognate departments and their work, such as political science, economics, law, public speaking, etc. It is decidedly more practicable for the one man department than the excellent course described by Professor Gabriel. Needless to say, no claim is made that this method is best for all colleges or all teachers. Probably several much better ones can be suggested. So much the better. If this effort moves other teachers to suggest better plans, Professor Gabriel will have done a great service by initiating this discussion.

The Use of Maps in History Teaching

BY ELMA G. MARTIN, M. A., WILSON COLLEGE

Fortunate indeed is the history class-room whose walls are lined with maps, maps of continents and grand divisions, showing relative size and distance; maps of countries, showing geographical localities and growth; maps of localities, showing the setting of great historical events; and maps illustrating the development of a particular period. Yet few, truly, are those teachers who can look about such a class-room, or think, comfortably, that closets and cases will furnish such desirable aids at a moment's notice. For most of us, a few good maps must suffice, and twice fortunate are we, if we can, from this very dearth, produce plenty, and not only gain for ourselves and our classes useful apparatus, but the even greater knowledge which comes from the careful map study.

I take it for granted that we are a unit as to the usefulness of the good map in aiding the student to visualize and make real the events of the past, and to relate them to his own daily life. Still I have known many history teachers, especially those who were young and inexperienced, who have not had the real help which they might have had from these useful adjuncts, because they did not think the maps of sufficient importance to warrant the expenditure of the little labor necessary to provide them, if they were lacking, or even, in some cases, to take them from cases and display them, when at hand. To these, I have nothing to say. But to the large number of teachers, many of them in high school work, who are honestly striving to make the short time which the pupil spends in the study of history of the greatest value to him, I wish to bring the added assurance which comes from the experience of a fellow-laborer. In my somewhat extended experience in the teaching of history in high school and college, I have always found the use of maps of primary value.

As far as the kind and size of maps to be used is concerned, I have yet to see a variety of which good use could not be made, if they were good of their kind. As one of these varieties, I like a sand map, even in the high school, if the sand table can be used in the recitation-room, and find that a sand map made by pupils to whom the work has been previously assigned, helps the student to visualize as few other things could. Take, for instance, the problem of settlements. A sand map of North America has previously been prepared, showing the Allegheny Mountain System, the rivers, and the lakes. There would be few pupils who could not see easily that the earlier settlements would cling to the Atlantic coast, and that, in pushing westward, the valleys of the Hudson-Mohawk System, the Susquehanna, and the Potomac would furnish needed pathways. The "gaps" in the ranges in Virginia would give a reason for the settlements in Kentucky and Tennessee by

settlers from the Old Dominion. And so also in the study of the problems of transportation. Any boy or girl of average intelligence would see at a glance why the canals and railroads of the country follow their present courses. Why cross the mountains to find a path directly westward from the port of New York, when the easy river-paths lead in a westerly direction? How easy to show the open pathways of the French and Indians from Canada in the French and Indian wars, to fix the picture of the battle of Gettysburg on the mind, or to show the Panama Canal, if the sand-table furnishes it in miniature! If we are not able to procure the sand map, one of papier-maché furnishes an excellent substitute. Most children have been taught in the grades to make paper pulp from torn newspapers, and to make maps of this. While these maps cannot conveniently be made as large as may the sand map, yet they serve the purpose well for as many as can see them. Often the grade teachers are glad to co-operate by allowing the needed maps to be made by their pupils in the course of study in their grades, and supplied in sufficient numbers for each pupil or small group of pupils in the high school class. This benefits both parties, for it supplies an incentive for neatness and accuracy in the grade, it serves to bring the grade and the high school class into contact, giving the social touch, and it furnishes very useful material to the history class. One black-eyed boy in a grade school told proudly that he had made a map for the history class in the high school, and a girl who lived in their street had used it. Of course, in place of the paper, modelling-clay or putty might be used, and the map might be made more or less permanent. Maps made in this way are much more useful than the expensive relief maps, which are not usually found in schools in sufficient numbers to be available for each room where history is taught.

As a test of knowledge, as well as an aid in fixing facts in mind, is the free-hand, physical map. In this day of inexpensive outline maps, practically the same results can be obtained with less time and effort, by locating the places desired upon these. They may be obtained in different sizes for use in notebooks, for locating places or following routes of transportation on the desks during the recitation period, and in still larger size for wall use. The McKinley Publishing Company furnishes these in several sizes, all of which are useful in their places.

Many children have been encouraged in the grades to make national resource maps, gluing, in the appropriate localities, samples of the products; such as cotton, grains of wheat, oats, corn, bits of cloth, coal, or different ores. This has not lost its usefulness in the history class, and a large outline wall-map may well be filled in, in this way, even adding pictures of articles manufactured in the different

localities. If this is not considered advisable, the agricultural localities might be tinted one color, the manufacturing, lumbering, or mining localities different colors, and the name of the particular crop, mineral, or manufactured article printed neatly in the correct place. This will enable the pupil to see at a glance what parts of the country are given over to the different chief industries, and will show, in part at least, to the thinking student, the reasons for such industries, as, for instance, the presence of forests, the nearness of the Grand Banks, and a soil too poor for agriculture, would give reasons for New England fisheries and shipbuilding, and for the growth of commerce; the wide extent of fertile soil in the northwest would account for wheat raising; and the forests of Washington and Oregon for lumbering.

In every class there are likely to be some pupils who have some talent for drawing, and who can be depended upon to do good work in this line. To these pupils the construction of a map might be assigned for outside work, as other problems are assigned to others; and it need not be one whit behind the other problems in interest or in educational value. These pupils may make maps for permanent use. Paper maps may be pasted on thin muslin to increase their wearing qualities, maps may be drawn directly on muslin, or on the cloth used by sign-writers, which may be purchased very cheaply. Another satisfactory material is a cloth in light shades, used by book-binders, and also inexpensive, if bought by the bolt. This takes inks and paints well, but erasure is difficult, practically impossible without sacrificing neatness. Of course, maps of this kind need to be hemmed at top and bottom and a flat stick or ruler slipped into the hem to hold them straight. Better than any of these, to my mind, is the cheap and satisfactory map painted directly on a white or light-colored roller window-shade, the roller of which is mounted on a thin strip of wood. In the top of this holder are screwed two heavy screw-eyes, and at corresponding distances on the wall where the maps are to be used, hooks are fixed. I have used several maps of this kind. By having shades with the same sized rollers, one may be removed and another inserted very easily, or they may be rolled up like the ordinary window-shade when not in use; and one has a roller map at a very small cost, one which shows just what is desired and nothing more, something often difficult to obtain in wall-maps.

Of course, the pupil must be given materials for the maps and directions for making them, unless he is experienced in the work. One may take the map to be copied, rule light lines in squares on its surface, determine how many times it is to be enlarged, and rule the surface upon which the map is to be drawn with squares correspondingly larger, then copy the outlines, square for square. The light pencil lines may later be erased. In this way there can be no great inaccuracy. Another way, which I have found even more satisfactory, and less work, is to determine the relation in size as before, then locate the latitude and longitude lines by making them as

many times farther apart on the map as the map is to be enlarged, and copying as before. The advantage in this method is that the latitude and longitude lines do not need to be erased. This saves time and makes for neatness.

Still another very satisfactory wall-map has for its foundation the heavy manila paper maps of the McKinley Publishing Company, sometimes mounted on thin cloth, and delicately colored and filled in as needed. In any case, when coloring maps, only very light, delicate colors should be used, and these as harmoniously handled as possible. Heavy coloring makes for a crude-looking map and detracts from the ease with which the lines and names used may be seen.

Some of the maps which I have found most helpful in the study of United States history are:

1. The physical map of North America. (Can be made from U. S. census report and forest maps.)
 2. Natural resource map.
 3. Map showing grants to the London and Plymouth Companies. Shows two separate interests already dividing the North and South.
 4. The explorations and resulting claims of the nations in North America.
 5. Physical map showing advantages and disadvantages of the French in the struggle with England, the unity of French territory, the location of the French forts, preparing the pupil to understand why they became centers of population.
 6. Pre-Revolutionary and Revolutionary claims of the English colonies. Of economic significance as it helped to pay the way debt.
 7. General industrial map showing cotton belt, coal regions, wheat regions, etc. Compare with 2.
 8. Revolutionary map of whole theatre of action, of divisions and their relations.
 9. Map to illustrate territorial growth.
 10. Map to illustrate internal improvements, important highways, canals, railroads, steamship lines, etc.
 11. Slavery maps, to illustrate free and slave territory, aims of the Civil War, different theatres of war, etc.
 12. Elevation and physical maps of such localities as Bunker Hill, the Hudson Valley and Lakes Ticonderoga and George, Gettysburg and the Panama Canal.
 13. Plans or models of houses, forts, and towns.
- These maps make the events of the past seem real, and simplify the problems given the student by making him see the historical event as, to a large extent, the natural result of natural causes.
- When a student has aided in constructing or drawing a map, or has studied carefully one made by another pupil, has seen that the events of history were the acts of ordinary human beings, acting under like impulses and circumstances as he himself, aided or hindered by geographical and physical conditions, living on territory which he himself may tread, the life of the present seems no longer entirely divorced from the past, and he sees both as parts of the same great whole, to know of which adds interest to daily life and teaches him lessons useful for the future.

A Written Test for a Civics Problem

BY RALPH H. MOWBRAY, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, CULVER MILITARY ACADEMY

All progressive teachers believe in teaching by problems. Very often, however, even when the class procedure is along the modern line, the tendency is to present questions in the written test which are abstract in form. This is a serious defect. If the method is sound, the student should be trained in it in written review work as much as in his oral daily work. The written quiz should be a test of his ability to meet new situations similar to the ones studied and solve the problem presented by the application to it of principles learned through the study of the topic in class. In other words, while the principles to be applied are the same as developed in the class, the material used should, whenever possible, be new. This is the only effective way to make a real test of the students' ability to apply knowledge.

In the particular test submitted as the basis for this discussion, the topic had been studied for about two weeks in class. The calling of a special session of Congress by President Harding had led to the investigation of the topic. The class used current periodicals, reference books and a text. An examination of the questions will suggest the point of view. As in any problem, the idea is to work out from a concrete situation to the determination of a general principle and then to apply the principle to other concrete situations—a strictly inductive method. Let it be noted that this test was given April 28th, 1921. In Group I the material was from a daily newspaper of the day before; in Group II all of the extracts are from the daily paper of the same date as the quiz. In Group III the questions are based on definite data concerning the Congress now in session.

The questions in Group I are based on a proposed Illinois reapportionment map. The students had not seen this map (at least it had not been presented in class) but they had studied all the questions suggested by it and they had had the opportunity of examining similar maps in the text and in the Congressional Directory. The appearance of the map was most opportune and ideally suited to the purpose. "That was good luck," a colleague commented, "but what would you have done if this material had not appeared?" Obviously, some other material would have been used or this group of questions would not have been asked. The point is that the questions were asked *because* the map appeared, not because the instructor had determined to ask that particular set of questions. The day before a student made the usual inquiry, "What sort of questions will we be likely to have tomorrow?" The instructor's reply was that he couldn't tell until he had seen the morning paper.

That the reply, though made facetiously, had a sound basis, is evidenced by the questions in Group II. All of them are based on extracts from the morning paper of that day. The quotations give point to the questions. They serve to connect the classroom work with the actual fact of what is going on in the

world. In the first question opportunity is given to develop the executive function of the Senate regarding appointments both from the theoretical and practical standpoint. The second question was apropos especially since a report had been made by a student of the class on the railroad crisis and a brief article on the subject had been read by all the class. The next question tested the knowledge of the committee system and also a recognition of the tendency of government to extend its control over private business. (In class a brief study had been made of this tendency by reference to the various government commissions and such recent legislation as anti-trust laws, pure-food laws and "blue-sky" laws.) The last question is different from the conventional type only in that it presents a definite case—a *real bill*, not just any bill—but this difference is fundamental as a matter of pedagogic value.

The questions of Group III aimed to bring out the difference between a regular and special session of Congress, the time of election of Congressmen, the beginning and length of their term, the number and classification of Senators.

It is obvious that the devising of such tests as this involves a good deal of work on the part of the instructor. It would be much easier to hand out a list of abstract questions; but if the problem method is to be used, the teacher should be given time and opportunity to go the whole way and make the written quiz a real test of the daily method.

A WRITTEN TEST FOR A CIVICS PROBLEM

Date of Quiz—April 28, 1921.

Topic: Congressional Organization and Procedure.

I. Examine the Illinois reapportionment map on the bulletin board. (From *Chicago Tribune*, April 27, 1921.)

- a. How was the number of districts determined?
- b. How was the division into districts made?
- c. Is there any evidence of "gerrymandering"? Explain.

II. Answer three of the following (Quotations are from the *Chicago Tribune* of April 28, 1921):

1. "Harding sends 84 nominations to Senate for action."
 - a. What action is referred to?
 - b. Explain "Senatorial courtesy."
2. "Rail rates too high," Representative Edmunds declared in the House.
 - a. What body controls the rates?
 - b. Comment briefly on the current problem suggested by the quotation.
3. "Passage of legislation regulating grain exchanges seemed assured when grain dealers, testifying before House Agricultural Committee, signified willingness to join in eradicating abuses in their trade."
 - a. Explain the function of the committee in the matter referred to.

- b. Comment on modern tendency in government suggested by the proposed legislation.
4. "Bill to bring Rhine army to U. S. is introduced by Representative Fish."
Trace the steps necessary to secure enactment of this bill into law.

- III. (a) When did the present session of Congress begin? Why at that time?
(b) When will the next session begin? Why?
(c) When were the present representatives elected? When will their term expire?
(d) How many states held Senatorial elections last fall?

Reference Studies in Oriental and Early European History (to 1700)

WM. R. LINGO, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, JAMESTOWN HIGH SCHOOL, JAMESTOWN, N. Y.

FOREWORD

History courses for secondary schools if well organized and administered efficiently will involve a considerable amount of collateral reading. If properly conducted by the teacher and conscientiously followed by the student, collateral reading constitutes one of the most interesting and instructive factors of history study. When a student has gradually developed a spirit of independence in locating material and arranging it for the purpose of study and discussion, a thing which reference work is due to accomplish, one of the characteristics of a real history student has been acquired. But experience has shown that however resourceful a student may become, considerable time is wasted and effort vainly put forth when the student is sent to a reference library without having at hand more or less definite references. The purpose of this book is to alleviate just such difficulty.

This work is intended for the use of both teachers and students. The references cover World History Course A as outlined in the New York History Syllabus and are arranged alphabetically by authors and under the twenty-six heads as is the material in the syllabus. It is believed that this work will be of very considerable value in locating material for theses, papers, etc., and unless teachers and students prefer to confine themselves strictly to a certain textbook it will aid materially in preparation for the daily recitation. References are to the editions indicated in the bibliography at the conclusion of this work, all of which books are suggested by the Regents for collateral reading unless otherwise specified by footnotes, and with the following exceptions:

Fling, Fred Morrow, *A Source Book of Greek History*.

Munro, D. C., *Source Book of Roman History*.

Thallon, Ida Carleton, *Readings in Greek History*.

Webster, Hutton, *Readings in Ancient History*.

Webster, Hutton, *Readings in Medieval and Modern History*.

This work makes no attempt to judge the merit of books or references nor to distinguish between references better adapted to the needs of teachers as against those better suited to the needs of students. It is considered better to leave this to the discriminating teacher in charge of students of varied attainments.

Books of an informational and especially those of an inspirational character and those to which it is impracticable to make particular reference because of their complexity are generally thrown into the period to which they refer, without making an effort to cite definite or specific references.

This work does not pretend to be exhaustive nor sufficiently detailed for intensive study of a brief period of history, but considering the enormous scope of the course and the brevity of time allowed for its completion it is believed that the references are as complete as the needs and convenience of teachers and students require.

COURSE A—FIRST TERM

I. INTRODUCTION—THE PREHISTORIC PERIOD

- *1. Breasted, James Henry—Ancient Times.
Early mankind in Europe 1-34
2. Keary, C. F.—Dawn of History.
a) Earliest traces of man 1-17
b) Second Stone Age 18-33
- *3—Larned, J. N.—Seventy Centuries.
The prehistoric peoples 19-30
- *4. Myers, J. L.—Dawn of History.
Peoples which have no history 13-28

II. THE ANCIENT EAST

1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
a) Egypt 5-26
b) The Tigris-Euphrates Valley... .. 27-41
c) Syria: The Phoenicians and Hebrews 42-54
d) The Median and Persian Empires.. 55-65
2. Church, A. J.—Stories of the East from Herodotus.
a) Story of King Croesus 2-65
b) Story of King Cyrus 66-115
c) Manners of the Egyptians 116-135
d) Certain kings of Egypt 136-174
e) Story of King Cambyses 175-217
f) The false Smerdis 218-235
g) The kingdom of Darius 236-245
h) Darius and the Scythians 256-275
3. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Greece).
a) Ancient Egypt 1-19
b) Babylonia and Assyria 20-44

- c) The Persian Empire 45-61
4. Day, Clive—A History of Commerce.
Oriental period 9-14
5. Finley, J. H.—A Pilgrim in Palestine.
6. Harrison, J. A.—Story of Greece.
Who the Phoenicians were 122-128
7. Keary, C. F.—Dawn of History.
a) Nations of the old world 68-81
b) Religion 109-127
c) Picture-writing 178-190
d) Phonetic writing 191-201
8. Maspero, G.—Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria.
a) Egypt
1) Thebes and the popular life... 1-16
2) The market and the shops..... 17-36
3) Life in the castle 93-112
4) The journey 153-171
5) The battle 172-193
b) Assyria
1) A royal residence 194-214
2) The royal audience: preparing for war 271-286
3) Assurbanipal's library 287-302
4) War 318-336
5) The fleet and the siege of a city 337-358
6) The triumph 359-376
9. Sanders, Frank Knight—History of the Hebrews.
a) Sojourn and exodus 49-68
b) Gradual establishment of the Hebrew kingdom 88-118
c) Assumption of political control by Assyria 155-176
d) Chaldean mastery of Palestine.... 187-193
e) Establishment of Roman overlordship 308-311
10. Tarbell, F. B.—History of Greek Art. Art in Egypt and Mesopotamia 15-46
11. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
a) The Egyptians 1-5
b) Babylonia 6-9
c) The Persians: founders of the Empire 9-25
12. Webster, William Clarence—General History of Commerce.
Commerce of the Ancient Orient 7-16
13. White, J. S.—Herodotus for Boys and Girls.
a) History of Lydia 4-16
b) Conquest of Assyria 65-81
c) Physical history of Egypt 83-90
d) Customs of the Egyptians 91-106
e) Reign of Darius 174-187
- III. HELLAS AND THE HELLENES TO THE END OF THE HOMERIC AGE (700 B. C.)
1. Botsford, W. S.—Source Book of Ancient History.
a) The Epic or Homeric Age 81-87
b) Myth and religion 88-96
2. Church, A. J.—Story of the Iliad—Story of the Odyssey.
3. Davis, W. S.—A Day in Old Athens.
a) Afternoon at the gymnasium 158-173
b) Great festivals of Athens 228-237
4. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Greece).
a) The early Cretans 62-65
b) The Homeric Age 65-80
c) Oracles and amphictyonies 85-93
5. Fling, Fred Morrow—Source Book of Greek History.
a) Primitive Greek society 1-28
b) Religion 41-53
6. Gayley, C. M.—*Classical Myths in English Literature.
7. Guerber, H. A.—*Myths of Greece and Rome.
8. Harrison, J. A.—Story of Greece.
a) The Olympic Games 151-162
9. Homer—Iliad and Odyssey.
10. Mahaffy, J. P.—Old Greek Life.
Greek religion 81-88
11. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
Homer, the great story teller 1-9
12. Tappan, E. M.—Story of the Greek People.
a) In the days of the myths 1-23
b) How the early Greeks lived 24-36
c) The Olympian Games 73-77
13. Tarbell, F. B.—History of Greek Art. Prehistoric art in Greece 47-76
14. Tucker, T. G.—Life in Ancient Athens. Religion 203-218
15. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
a) Early Greek society 26-45
b) Stories from Greek Mythology.... 46-52
16. White, J. S.—Herodotus for Boys and Girls.
Asiatic Greeks 54-64
17. Wright, J. H.—Masterpieces of Greek Literature.
Homer 1-45
*Not suggested by the Regents.
*Also adapted to Article VIII.
18. Zimmern, A. E.—The Greek Commonwealth.
a) The Mediterranean area 15-33
b) The climate 34-40
c) The soil 41-53
d) Gentleness, or the rule of religion.. 105-122
- IV. THE PREPARATORY PERIOD (750-480 B. C.)
1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
a) City state and its development.... 97-101
b) Economy and colonization 103-109
c) Rise of Sparta and the Peloponnesian League 111-121
d) Athens: from monarchy to democracy 123-139
e) War between Greece and Persia... 162-174
2. Bury, J. B.—History of Greece.
a) Growth of Sparta 120-161
b) Growth of Athens 190-218
c) Persian Wars 265-296

3. Creasy, E. S.—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.
Marathon 1-35
 4. Davis, W. S.—A Victor of Salamis.
 5. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Greece).
a) Reforms of Lycurgus and Spartan discipline 103-111
b) The Persian Wars 130-198
 6. Fling, Fred Morrow—Source Book of Greek History.
a) Colonization 29-40
b) The Persian Wars 98-127
c) War with Carthage 142-143
 7. Grant, A. J.—Greece in the Age of Pericles.
a) Civilization and religion 1-40
b) Sparta 42-65
c) Early history of Athens 66-90
 8. Hall, Jennie—Men of Old Greece.
a) Leonidas 11-87
b) Themistocles 91-167
 9. Harrison, J. A.—Story of Greece.
a) Wonderful story of Sparta 92-110
b) How the tyrants ruled in Greece... 129-136
c) The wise Solon 172-181, 193-204
d) The dreadful Draco 182-192
e) Tyrants of Athens 229-240
f) Cleisthenes 241-251
g) Marathon 296-309
h) Themistocles and Aristides 310-321
i) Thermopylae and Salamis 335-361
 10. Hopkinson, L. W.—Greek Leaders.
a) Solon 1-17
b) Themistocles 19-36
 11. Kingsley, Charles—Greek Heroes.
The Argonauts 47-122
 12. Snedeker, C. D.—The Spartan.
 13. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
a) Lycurgus 9-16
b) Solon 17-24
c) Darius of Persia is repulsed at Marathon 24-35
d) Xerxes tries to conquer Greece... 36-44
 14. Tappan, E. M.—Story of the Greek People.
a) How the Spartans became powerful 36-51
b) The early days of Athens 51-62
c) The rule of Pisistratus 63-72
d) Greek colonies 78-84
e) First and second Persian expeditions 85-95
f) The Great Persian invasion 96-117
g) After the Persian War 118-132
 15. Thallon, Ida Carleton—Readings in Greek History.
a) Thermopylae and Artemisium 190-202
b) The western Greeks 231-239
 16. Tucker, T. G.—Life in Ancient Athens.
Army and navy 193-200
 17. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
a) Some Greek tyrants 53-62
b) Spartan education and life 63-68
c) Xerxes and the invasion of Greece. 69-84
 18. White, J. S.—Herodotus for Boys and Girls.
a) Origin of Athens and Sparta 17-24
b) Ionian revolt 227-235
c) Suppression of the revolt 236-245
d) Expedition of Datis and Artaphernes: battle of Marathon 252-260
e) Battle of Thermopylae 280-291
f) Invasion of Attica; battle of Salamis 292-301
g) Retreat of Xerxes 302-306
h) Liberation of the Asiatic Greeks.. 307-325
 19. White, J. S.—Plutarch's Lives for Boys and Girls.
a) Lycurgus 49-72
b) Solon 73-87
c) Themistocles 88-105
 20. Zimmern, A. E.—The Greek Commonwealth.
a) Law, or the rule of fair play..... 123-136
b) Colonization 250-253
- ### V. THE CLASSICAL OR GOLDEN AGE
1. Abbot, Evelyn—Pericles and the Golden Age of Athens.
a) Congress at Corinth and the Delian League 33-45
b) Athens of Pericles: government, home and foreign 258-288
c) Athens of Pericles: art and literature 289-340
d) Athens of Pericles: manners and society 341-367
 2. Botsford, G. W. Source Book of Ancient History.
a) The Athenian Empire 175-178
b. The Age of Pericles 180-209
 3. Bury, J. B.—History of Greece.
a) Foundation of the Athenian Empire 322-345
b) Athens under Pericles 346-389
 4. Davis, W. S.—A Day in Old Athens.
a) The Athenian home and its furnishings 26-34
b) Women of Athens 35-42
c) Slaves 51-56
d) Children: school boys of Athens... 57-76
e) Trade, manufacturing, banking 91-100
f) The ecclesia of Athens 147-157
g) Country life around Athens 191-203
h) Temples and gods of Athens 204-227
 5. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Greece).
a) Golden Age of Athens 199-214
 6. Fling, Fred Morrow—Source Book of Greek History.
a) Supremacy of Athens 144-159
 7. Grant, A. J.—Greece in the Age of Pericles.
a) Athenian democracy 144-178
b) Pericles: his policy and friends... 179-208
c) Society in Greece 209-239

8. Hall, Jennie—Men of Old Greece.
Phidias and the Parthenon 171-217
9. Harrison, J. A.—Story of Greece.
Periclean Age 388-410
10. Hopkinson, L. W.—Greek Leaders.
a) Pericles 37-58
11. Mahaffy, J. P.—Old Greek Life.
a) The Greek at home 45-61
b) Public life of the Greek citizen 62-79
12. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
Pericles and his Age 44-52
13. Tappan, E. M.—Story of the Greek People.
Age of Pericles 134-150
14. Tarbell, F. B.—History of Greek Art.
a) Greek architecture 77-112
b) Great age of Greek sculpture 184-242
15. Thallon, Ida Carleton—Readings in Greek History Leadership of Athens under:
a) Cimon 255-263
b) Pericles 268-302
16. Tucker, T. G.—Life in Ancient Athens.
a) Public buildings, streets, etc. 31-53
b) Citizens, outlanders, slaves: women
57-85, 155-174
c) House and furniture 89-104
d) Social day of a typical citizen 107-152
e) Boyhood: education and training.. 177-189
f) Festivals and the Greek theatre... 221-242
g) Council and assembly 245-253
h) Athenian art 277-308
17. White, J. S.—Plutarch's Lives for Boys and Girls.
a) Pericles 136-167
b) Aristides 288-304
c) Cimon 306-325
18. Wright, J. H.—Masterpieces of Greek Literature.
a) Aeschylus 85-135
b) Sophocles 136-190
c) Herodotus 292-318
19. Zimmern, A. E.—The Greek Commonwealth.
a) Self government, or the rule of the people 137-176
b) Liberty, or the rule of empire 178-195
c) Poverty 211-217
d) Public and private property 284-298
e) Money 299-311
f) Foreign trade 312-321
g) Silver mines 395-400
h) Finance 401-417
i) Work on the land 226-233
j) Craftsmen and workmen 253-276
- VI. DISCORD IN GREECE AND ITS DECLINE AS A POLITICAL FORCE (431-362 B. C.)
1. Abbot, Evelyn—Pericles and the Golden Age of Athens.
a) Causes of the Peloponnesian War.. 172-200
b) Outbreak of the war 201-217
c) First year of the war: funeral oration 218-234
d) Last years of Pericles 235-257
2. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
a) Peloponnesian War and Sicilian Expedition 211-240
b) Supremacy of Sparta 247
c) Thebes attempts to gain supremacy. 256-264
3. Bury, J. B.—History of Greece.
a) War of Athens with the Peloponnesians 390-457
b) Decline of the Athenian Empire... 458-513
c) Supremacy of Sparta 514-554
d) Supremacy of Thebes 591-628
4. Creasy, E. S.—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.
Syracuse 36-56
5. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Greece).
a) How the war began and Sicilian Expedition 218-232
b) Battle of Aegospotami 232-234
c) Anecdotes about Socrates 240-250
6. Fling, Fred Morrow—Source Book of Greek History.
a) Peloponnesian Wars 174-238
b) Spartan and Theban supremacy... 250-285
c) Socrates and his teaching 240-249
7. Grant, A. J.—Greece in the Age of Pericles.
a) Rivalry of Athens and Sparta 91-115
b) Peloponnesian War to the Sicilian Expedition 240-278
c) Sicilian Expedition 278-295
8. Hall, Jennie—Men of Old Greece.
Socrates 221-263
9. Harrison, J. A.—Story of Greece.
a) Peloponnesian Wars 441-471
b) Rise of Thebes 472-485
10. Hopkinson, L. W.—Greek Leaders.
a) Alcibiades 59-77
b) Epaminondas 147-170
c) Socrates 79-101
11. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
Socrates and Plato 53-59
12. Tappan, E. M.—Story of the Greek People.
a) Peloponnesian War 151-188
b) When Sparta ruled 189-203
c) When Thebes was in power 205-209
13. Thallon, Ida Carleton—Readings in Greek History.
a) Peloponnesian War 304-375
b) Sicilian Expedition 376-415
c) Athens after the Sicilian Expedition 416-465
d) Spartan and Theban supremacies... 467-506
14. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
a) Episodes of the Peloponnesian War 85-97

- b) Expedition of the Ten Thousand... 108-119
 c) Trial and death of Socrates 120-128
 15. White, J. S.—Plutarch's Lives for Boys and Girls.
 Alibiades 233-259
 16. Wright, J. H.—Masterpieces of Greek literature.
 a) Euripides 191-248
 b) Aristophanes 249-291
 c) Thucydides 319-349
 d) Xenophon 350-370
 e) Plato 371-416
 17. Zimmermann, A. E.—The Greek Commonwealth.
 The Peloponnesian War 418-441
- VII. ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE
1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
 a) Rise of Macedon 266-281
 b) The Hellenistic Age 297-310
 2. Creasy, E. S.—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.
 Arbela 57-83
 3. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Greece).
 a) Philip II. 284-286, 293-297
 b) Alexander the Great 298-307
 c) Conquest of Persia 308-321
 d) The Hellenistic Age 322-341
 4. Fling, Fred Morrow—Source Book of Greek History.
 a) Macedonian conquests 286-317
 b) The Achaean League 330-338
 5. Harrison, J. A.—Story of Greece.
 Young barbarians at play 486-500
 6. Hopkinson, L. W.—Greek Leaders.
 a) Demosthenes 171-196
 b) Alexander the Great 197-222
 7. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
 a) Demosthenes 59-66
 b) Alexander the Great 67-75
 8. Tappan, E. M.—Story of the Greek people.
 a) Philip of Macedonia 210-220
 b) Alexander the Great 222-239
 9. Thallon, Ida Carleton—Readings in Greek History.
 a) Early conditions in Macedon 559-561
 b) Philip 561-573
 c) Demosthenes 574-621
 10. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
 a) Demosthenes and Philip 129-137
 b) Exploits of Alexander the Great.. 138-153
 11. Wheeler, B. I.—Alexander the Great.
 a) Boyhood and education 19-47
 b) Higher education 48-63
 c) Alexander in central Greece..... 166-179
 d) Carrying the war into Asia 208-226
 e) Battle of Issus 280-293
 f) Battle of Gaugamela 356-368
 g) Invasion of India 415-432
 h) Conquest of the Punjab 447-462
 i) Return to Persia 463-472
 12. White, J. S.—Plutarch's Lives for Boys and Girls.
 a) Demosthenes 168-189
 b) Alexander the Great 420-441
 13. Wright, J. H.—Masterpieces of Greek Literature.
 Demosthenes 417-428
- VIII. DEVELOPMENT OF THE EARLY ROMAN REPUBLIC.
1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
 a) Italy and her people 326-332
 b) Rome under the kings 333-346
 2. Botsford, G. W.—Story of Rome.
 a) Italy and her people..... 14-27
 b) The seven kings 29-57
 3. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome).
 The first Roman age 1-18
 4. Herbermann, Charles G.—*Business Life in Ancient Rome.
 5. Johnston, H. W.—Private Life of the Romans.
 a) The family 21-34
 b) Marriage and the position of women 49-66
 c) The home and its furniture 117-157
 d) Dress and personal ornaments 158-182
 e) Food and meals 183-214
 6. Munro, D. C.—Source Book of Roman History.
 a) Italy and early Rome 2-5
 b) Religion 6-21
 c) Early history, the kingdom 66-70
 7. Pelham, H. F.—Outlines of Roman History.
 a) Rome under the kings 30-41
 b) Foundation of the republic and struggle between the orders 45-67
 8. Tighe, Ambrose—Development of the Roman Constitution.
 a) Structure of ancient society..... 28-43
 b) Rome under the kings 44-58
 c) Earliest reforms in the Roman constitution 59-67
 d) The fight within the city..... 85-113
 9. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
 Legends of early Rome 154-173
 10. Wilkins, A. S.—Roman Antiquities.
 a) The Roman character 5-15
 b) The Roman's daily life 32-49
 c) The Roman family 49-81
 d) The Roman's public life 81-105
 e) The Roman's religion 105-121
- IX. ROMAN CONQUESTS TO 131 B. C.
1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.

*Also adapted to Articles IX and X.

- a) First period of the republic 348-369
 - b) Roman organization: municipalities and colonies 371-378
 - c) First and Second Punic Wars 379-387
 - d) Growth of plutocracy 397-415
 2. Botsford, G. W.—Story of Rome.
 - a) First period of the republic: external history 60-83
 - b) First period of the republic: internal history 84-99
 - c) Second period of the republic: external history 127-157
 - d) Second period of the republic; internal history 127-157
 3. Church, A. J.—Roman Life in the Days of Cicero.
 - a) A governor in his province 247-266
 4. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome).
 - a) Growth of the republic 19-52
 - b) Death struggle with Carthage 53-84
 5. Johnston, H. W.—Private Life of the Romans.
 - a) Dependents: slaves and clients 87-116
 6. Laing, G. J.—Masterpieces of Latin Literature.
 - a) Terence 1-62
 7. Macaulay, T. M.—Lays of Ancient Rome.
 8. Munro, D. C.—Source Book of Roman History.
 - a) Roman army 23-40
 - b) Constitution and laws of the early republic 41-64
 - c) History of the early republic 71-77
 - d) Punic Wars 78-91
 - e) Provinces and provincial administration 217-237
 9. Pelham, H. F.—Outlines of Roman History.
 - a) Conquest of Italy 68-107
 - b) Rome and Carthage: conquest of the West 114-139
 - c) Rome and the East 140-157
 - d) The Roman state and people during the period of the great wars 158-198
 10. Smith, R. B.—Rome and Carthage.
 - a) Carthage 1-22
 - b) First Punic War 28-37
 - c) Second Punic War 109-121
 - d) Battles of Trebia and Trasimene.. 121-136
 - e) Hannibal overruns central Italy.... 136-145
 - f) Battle of Cannae 145-164
 - g) Battle of Metaurus 185-191
 - h) P. Cornelius Scipio 191-198
 - i) The war in Africa: Battle of Zama. 198-219
 - j) Destruction of Carthage 229-251
 11. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
 - a) Hannibal, who fought against Rome.. 91-99
 12. Tighe, Ambrose—Development of the Roman Constitution.
 - a) The fight without the city 68-84
 - b) How Rome was governed at the time of the Second Punic War 114-131
 13. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
 - a) Hannibal and the great Punic Wars.. 174-185
 14. Webster, William Clarence—General History of Commerce.
 - a) Commerce of the Romans 24-34
- X. A CENTURY OF CIVIL STRIFE (131-31 B. C.)
1. Abbot, F. F.—Society and Politics in Ancient Rome.
 - a) Municipal politics in Pompeii 3-21
 - b) Two oligarchies 22-40
 - c) The theatre in Roman politics.... 100-114
 - d) Literature and the common people of Rome 159-190
 - e) The career of a Roman student ... 191-214
 2. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
 - a) Revolution: from plutocracy to military rule 417-431
 - b) Pompey 433-437
 - c) Cicero and Catiline 437-442
 - d) Caesar 442-454
 - e) Octavius 454-457
 3. Botsford, G. W.—Story of Rome.
 - a) Revolution: Gracchi, Marius, Sulla. 159-187
 - b) Pompey 189-198
 - c) Caesar 199-218
 - d) Octavius 219-230
 4. Church, A. J.—Pictures from Roman Life and Story.
 - a) A great show 310-323
 5. Church, A. J.—Roman Life in the Days of Cicero.
 - a) Caesar 150-175
 - b) Pompey 176-191
 - c) Antony and Octavian 279-291
 6. Davis, W. S.—A Friend of Caesar.
 7. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome).
 - a) The agrarian problem: the Gracchi. 103-109
 - b) Marius and Sulla 111-117
 - c) Pompey and Crassus 123-129
 - d) Cicero 129-138
 - e) Caesar 138-161
 8. Firth, J. B.—Augustus Caesar.
 - a) Octavian and the senate 38-72
 - b) The triumvirate and the campaign at Philippi 73-93
 - c) The fall of Antonius 129-152
 9. Fowler, W. Warde—Julius Caesar.
 - a) Praetorship and formation of first triumvirate 87-103
 - b) Defense of Transalpine Gaul 126-147
 - c) Defeat of the Germans 148-160
 - d) Conquest of north-western Gaul... 161-175
 - e) Civil war in Italy and Spain..... 258-280
 - f) Caesar's last wars 308-325

- g) Caesar's use of absolute power 326-359
 h) The end 360-378
10. Fowler, W. Warde—Social Life at Rome.
 a) The lower population 24-59
 b) The governing aristocracy 97-134
 c) House of a rich man 237-262
 d) Daily life of the well-to-do 263-284
 e) Religion 319-352
11. Johnston, H. W.—Private Life of the Romans.
 Amusements 215-277
12. Laing, G. J.—Masterpieces of Latin Literature.
 a) Cicero 127-181
 b) Caesar 182-197
13. Munro, D. C.—Source Book of Roman History.
 a) The Gracchi 104-114
 b) The civil wars 115-141
14. Oman, Charles—Seven Roman Statesmen of the Later Republic.
 a) Later days of the Roman Republic. 1-11
 b) Tiberius Gracchus 12-50
 c) Gaius Gracchus 51-88
 d) From the Gracchi to Sulla: Jugurthine War 89-115
 e) Sulla 116-161
 f) Crassus 162-203
 g) Pompey 234-288
 h) Caesar 289-340
15. Pelham, H. F.—Outlines of Roman History.
 a) From the Gracchi to Sulla 201-231
 b) From Sulla to Caesar 232-258
 c) Empire during the period of revolution 259-329
 d) Dictatorship of Julius 333-356
 e) Provisional government of the triumvirate 357-397
16. Shakespeare, William—Julius Caesar.
17. Strachan-Davidson, J. L.—Cicero.
 a) Roman parties and statesmen 24-51
 b) Cicero's ideal party 159-200
 c) The First Triumvirate 201-228
 d) The civil war 323-344
 e) Caesar's dictatorship 345-379
 f) Cicero and Antony 380-429
18. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
 Cicero, the great Roman orator 105-110
19. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
 a) Cicero the orator 193-203
 b) Conquest of Gaul 204-217
 c) Julius Caesar 218-221
20. White, J. S.—Plutarch's Lives for Boys and Girls.
 Pompey 326-369
- XI. THE EMPIRE (31 B. C.-180 A. D.)
1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
 a) Augustus and Tiberius 464-478
 b) Administration of the princes 480-491
 c) Life under the early princes 491-500
 d) Period of the Good Emperors 502-519
2. Botsford, G. W.—Story of Rome.
 a) The Julian Emperors 233-255
 b) The Claudian and Flavian Emperors 261-284
 c) The five Good Emperors 286-315
3. Church, A. J.—Pictures from Roman Life and Story.
 a) A child of fortune: Augustus 1-9, 31-39
 b) A day with Horace 22-30
 c) A mutiny: Tiberius 40-52, 72-76
 d) The madman of the throne: Caligula 77-83
 e) Claudius 84-96
 f) The great fire of Rome: Nero 108-147
 g) A student: Pliny 193-203
 h) A just emperor: Trajan 300-309
4. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome).
 a) Deeds and magnanimity of Augustus 166-181
 b) Deeds of the emperors 182-196
 c) Hadrian and Marcus Aurelius 196-203
5. Firth, J. B.—Augustus Caesar.
 a) The new regime 153-165
 b) Augustus and his powers 166-179
 c) Theory of the principate 180-198
 d) Augustus as a social and religious reformer 199-221
 e) Organization of the provinces 222-235
6. Freeman, Edward A.—Old English History.
 The Romans in Britain 9-21
7. Jones, H. S.—Roman Empire 29 B. C. to 476 A. D.
 a) Augustus 2-41
 b) Julian-Claudian dynasty 42-83
 c) The Jewish rebellion 106-111
 d) The Flavian dynasty 112-148
 e) The five Good Emperors 149-233
8. Laing, G. J.—Masterpieces of Latin Literature.
 a) Virgil 198-272
 b) Horace 273-301
 c) Livy 348-386
 d) Martial 393-398
 e) Tacitus 399-431
 f) Pliny 450-471
9. Lytton, Lord—Last Days of Pompeii.
10. Munro, D. C.—Source Book of Roman History.
 The early empire 143-161
11. Pelham, H. F.—Outlines of Roman History.
 a) Foundation of the principate and rule of Augustus 398-469
 b) The Julian line 470-509
 c) The Flavian and Antonine Caesars. 513-545
12. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories.
 Augustus and the Augustan Age 110-118
13. Terry, B. S.—History of England.

- Early Britain 7-17
14. Wallace, Lew—Ben Hur.
15. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.
- a) Character sketch of Augustus 221-226
- b) Nero 227-239
- c) Roman life as seen in the letters of Pliny 240-252
- XII. DECLINE AND FALL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE (180-476 A. D.)
1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
- a) City and country life contrasted... 498-500
- b) Constantine 533-536
- c) The northern barbarians 544-557
- d) Roman life under the late empire... 558-572
2. Creasy, Sir Edward—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.
- Battle of Chalons 143-158
3. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome).
- a) Public and private life under the empire 211-265
- b) The dying empire and the German invaders 310-327
4. Emerton, Ephraim—Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages.
- a) The two races 12-21
- b) Breaking of the frontier by the Visigoths 22-34
- c) The Vandals 35-38
- d) The invasion of the Huns 41-47
- e) The Germans in Italy 48-59
5. Firth, J. B.—Augustus Caesar.
- The Danube and the Rhine 290-319
6. Firth, J. B.—Constantine.
- a) The empire under Diocletian 1-11
- b) The invasion of Italy 73-91
- c) The vision of the cross 92-106
- d) The Council of Nicea 211-236
- e) The foundation of Constantinople... 257-284
7. Johnston, H. W.—Private Life of the Romans.
- Travel and correspondence 278-298
8. Jones, H. S.—Roman Empire 29 B. C. to 476 A. D.
- a) Disintegration of the empire 279-311
- b) Diocletian and Constantine 352-398
- c) Epilogue 399-446
9. Kingsley, Charles—The Roman and the Teuton.
- a) The dying empire 17-46
- b) The human deluge 58-97
- c) The Gothic civilizer 98-120
10. Munro, D. C.—Source Book of Roman History.
- a) Slavery 179-192
- b) Education 193-197
- c) Amusements 207-216
11. Munro and Sellery—Medieval Civilization.
- a) Victory of the Latin language.... 3-17
- b) Aristocracy and serfdom..... 18-33
- c) Taxation in the fourth century.... 34-49
- d) Germans in the Roman Empire.... 50-59
12. Ogg, Frederic, Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.
- a) The Visigothic invasion 32-41
- b) The Huns 42-46
- c) The Angles and Saxons in Britain.. 68-77
13. Pelham, H. F.—Outlines of Roman History.
- a) The empire in the third century ... 546-552
- b) From Diocletian to the death of Theodosius 555-576
14. Sedgwick, H. D.—A Short History of Italy.
- a) Fall of the empire in the West 1-11
- b) The Ostrogoths 12-22
15. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.
- The Germanic invasion 3-15
16. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories (Part II).
- a) Alaric the Visigoth 1-9
- b) Attila the Hun 10-15
- c) Genseric the Vandal 16-18
- d) Constantine the Great 125-130
- (To be continued in the next issue.)

A New Teachers' Manual

The Maryland State Department of Education has issued a pamphlet (122 pp.) upon "The Teaching of High School History." The bulletin was prepared by Mr. Samuel M. North, State Supervisor of High Schools, with the assistance of several high school teachers and of Prof. A. M. Isanogle, of Western Maryland College. The bulletin is a decided step in advance of the usual state syllabus in history. Only a very brief statement is given of the subject matter for each year; and the bulk of the volume is devoted to the suggestion of sound, progressive methods.

The course of study is as follows:

First year: One or two of the Social Science subjects: Elementary Economics; Elementary Sociology; History of Commerce and Industry; Civics.

Second Year: World History to 1789.

Third Year: World History since 1789.

Fourth Year: The United States as a Nation in Its World Setting.

These courses are not outlined in detail, but a large number of practical suggestions are furnished. Under "Aims and Values," the teacher is encouraged not only to think out the reason for putting history instruction into the school curriculum, but she is also led to face consciously the relative values of various forms of history instruction. "Teaching Current Events" receives careful treatment and is further developed into a method for motivating history teaching. Seven type lessons are worked out on this basis. Collateral Reading, the use of the Textbook, and Methods of Testing History Instruction are discussed. About one-third of the bulletin is devoted to bibliographies. The bulletin should be of service in improving the standards of history teaching in the State. Other communities would profit by following this example, instead of devoting time and money to the preparation and publication of extended syllabi.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,
TEACHERS' COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The First Crusade, translated from the Accounts of Eyewitnesses. By A. C. Krey. Princeton University Press: 1921. vi, 299 pp. \$3.00.

The source material used in this account comprises fourteen letters and eleven chronicles. The letter-writers were Popes Urban II and Pascal II; Emperor Alexius; Simeon the Patriarch of Jerusalem; Adhemar; Stephen of Blois; Anselm of Ribemont; Bohemund and some of his associates; Daimbert, Archbishop of Pisa, Duke Godfrey and others; Manasses, Archbishop of Rheims; and the Clergy and People of Lucca. The Chronicles are the following:—

1. Anonymi Gesta Francorum et aliorum Hierosolymitanorum.
2. Historia Francorum qui ceperunt Jerusalem.
3. Historia Hierosolymitana.
4. The Alexiad.
5. Historia de Hierosolimitano Itinere.
6. Hierosolymita.
7. Gesta Tancredi.
8. Liber Christianae expeditionis pro ereptione, emundatione, restitutione Sanctae Hierosolymitanae.
9. Hierosolymitana Expeditio.
10. Historia Hierosolymitana.
11. Gesta Dei per Francos.

These sources have been both discriminatingly selected and felicitously translated.

It is Professor Krey's method of using this source material that gives especial charm and significance to his book, for instead of presenting these letters and chronicles one after another, each in its entirety, he has distributed them piecemeal in such a fashion as to build up a consecutive narrative of seven chapters. Thus these chapters recount and describe in the words of the medieval writers, the Pope's summons to the Crusade, the march of the various bands to Constantinople, the relation of the Eastern Emperor Alexius with the crusaders, including the siege and capture of Nicaea, the journey thence to Antioch and its capture, the siege by Kerbogha of Antioch, held by the crusaders together with the finding of the Lance, the subsequent dissension of the leaders, and the capture of Jerusalem.

Really serviceable helps are supplied to the reader, the first and most important being the twenty-page introduction in which the sources are discussed, and much valuable information is given about medieval methods of communication, money and prices in those days, the numbers of the participants, military arrangements, and kindred matters. Four maps of the region of Constantinople, Asia Minor, the region of Antioch, and the Levant supply assistance in understanding routes and sieges. Each chapter is introduced by a statement that either links it to its predecessor or clears the way for it, and for each is supplied a section of notes that adequately explain the many otherwise obscure references which the

medieval writers make. No human achievement of the Christian era has a larger hold upon the interest and imagination of the reader of history than the first crusade, and it has been the author's aim to make possible in these "lack-o-Latin days" a real contact of reader and student with the testimony of the most reliable eyewitnesses of this world-influencing movement. This aim has been achieved with high success.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

Social Scandinavia in the Viking Age. By Mary Wilhelmine Williams. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. \$6.00. Pp. 451.

Professor Williams has made an interesting and valuable addition to the growing literature of economic and social history. To most readers the name "Viking" suggests chiefly piracy, slaughter, and destruction, for most accounts in English are devoted mainly to such activities and the sources for the raids and invasions are almost wholly the chronicles of their Christian enemies who did not fail to emphasize the atrocities committed by the heathen.

These vikings extended their raids and settlements, between the latter part of the eighth and the early eleventh centuries, from Greenland and eastern North America to the heart of Russia, and from Sicily and North Africa to the ice fields that blocked the way to the North Pole. The researches of scholars, especially those of Scandinavian countries, have revealed a varied civilization that compares favorably in many respects with that of Christian Europe during the same period. Professor Williams has not only examined such studies, but has made extensive use of primary sources, including the laws and sagas and the material remains which have been extensively collected in the museums.

From this mass of material she has produced clear, well-organized, and well-written accounts. The career of the Northman is traced from infancy and childhood, through the various activities of life to death and burial. His home, housefurnishings, food, and dress; the routine of farming and rural life; hunting and fishing; markets, towns, transportation by land and sea, the wide ramifications of a remarkable commerce; the bonds of blood, classes of society, government and justice, weapons and warfare; social gatherings, recreations and amusements; language, literature, art, scientific knowledge; religion and superstition, myth and folklore; are all described. There is a very interesting study of the family and of the position of women, who enjoyed more independence than any other women of contemporary Europe."

The fifty pictures, many of them full-page, are an important supplement to the text. There is a bibliography of fourteen pages and an index.

A Shorter History of England and Greater Britain. By Arthur Lyon Cross. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920; xxvi., 942 pp.

This volume consists of an abridgment of the author's well-known textbook, *A History of England and Greater Britain*, published in 1914, together with

four supplementary chapters. Two of these, dealing with the history of the United Kingdom and the Empire during the World War, are entirely new; the other two, treating respectively of the development of the Empire during the hundred years before 1914, and British foreign relations from 1870 to 1914, draw upon material that was scattered through the last seven chapters of the earlier text.

The work of abridgment has been well done. The original text was overstocked with unessential detail, which often tended to obscure the significant facts of the narrative. Much of this has now been eliminated, and the *Shorter History* gives us in some 800 pages a text of English history to 1914 that is better proportioned and more useful, both as a college manual and as a book of reference, than that which fills nearly 1100 pages of the original *History*.

The last two chapters, give, in 75 pages, an excellent account of the military activities of Britain and the Empire during the war, and discuss their political, constitutional and economic development. The story is simply and clearly told, and the chapter bibliographies point the way for further study.

Other manuals of English history have merits of their own, and some of them are superior in certain respects to this *Shorter History* of Prof. Cross's. But all in all, this is decidedly the most satisfactory text for the use of college classes.

R. L. SCHUYLER.

Henry V. By B. B. Mowat. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1920. 343 pp. (\$3.50.)

The book under review is the third in the series of the Kings and Queens of England (ed. R. S. Rait and William Page) to see the light. If the aim of the series is, as Professor Shotwell indicated in an introduction to the volume on Henry VII, to recount the history of England through the biographies of its rulers, this volume can scarcely be deemed to have fulfilled its purpose. For it offers but a disjointed picture of England from 1413 to 1422. It is the story of a young man, precocious, purposeful, ambitious, resourceful, and indefatigable. One who follows through the itinerary of Henry which Mr. Mowat has appended to his volume must needs recognize that the business of being a king was, in the Middle Ages, no simple task. From youth until death cut him down at the age of thirty-five the king was almost continually in the saddle, and the book is made up in large part of battles and sieges. Only in the fourth chapter, which the author devotes to a critical discussion of the "legendary and the real Henry"—arguing that tradition greatly magnified the excesses of his youth—and in the last, in which is given a summary of the character and achievement of the king, does the reader escape the martial tread.

The style is peculiarly unadorned; there is not a sparkle from the beginning to the end of the book. Repetition in thought and expression is frequent. But it is a straightforward story and would serve well as collateral reading in a course in English history.

AUSTIN P. EVANS.

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- Horner, John B. *Oregon, her history [etc.]*. Portland, Ore.: J. K. Gill Co. 366 pp. \$2.00 net.
- McKim, Randolph H. *A soldier's recollections; leaves from the diary of a young Confederate*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 362 p. \$2.00 net.
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- Skinner, Alanson B. *Notes on Iroquois Archaeology*. N. Y.: Museum of the Am. Indian, Heye Foundation. 216 pp. (2¾ p. bibl.)
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